NEW ERA LIBRARY

THE New Era Library represents an attempt to meet the demand on the part of the general reader for works which are, frankly, merely introductions to a subject and not indigestible tabloid primers. They give in broad outline something of the main principles and sphere of activity of the subject covered by the title or sub-title. They do not profess to be encyclopædic in character, and they assume little if any *previous knowledge on the part of the reader.*

The explanations are in each case full enough to permit a person, unaided, to get a wide general view of some important topic, unburdened with excessive detail, in order that the larger classical works may afterwards be the more easily attacked by those who desire to pursue their studies further.

In these days it is necessary for the man in the street to know a little of many things. Our aim is to present 'that little' in such a way that it is easily assimilated, and yet so accurate that nothing has to be unlearned at a later stage.

THE NEW ERA IN EDUCATION

EDITED BY

ERNEST YOUNG

GEORGE PHILIP & SON LTD

TO

B. S. GOTT

INTRODUCTION

FROM time to time people write to the papers to criticise the schools. Their remarks usually bear witness to a lamentable ignorance of all the educational changes that have taken place during the last few years. The people who grumble ignorantly will probably wish to remain ignorant, as light would diminish their self-confidence and rob their ill-informed remarks of any excuse for reappearance. If they could be persuaded to read the chapters of this book they would perhaps realise that British education is at any rate not standing still. It would be too much to hope that those who merely regard schools as places where cheap but efficient clerks and operatives ought to be manufactured at the expense of the State, will view most of the experiments hereafter described with much favour. But those who are really serious in their wish to see a new race of citizens arise to play their part in the life of the community, will perhaps regain a little hope when they know of a few of the things that are happening in the schools of to-day.

As for the teachers, they stand in another class. Despite their murmurs about salaries, they are

probably, as a body, the most unselfish workers in the community. But in many instances they live in out-of-the-way places far removed from knowledge, first hand, of the many experiments that are being carried out. For them this book should possess certain definite values. It is a record of ideas ; it is not possible for every teacher to accept every new idea of which he becomes cognisant, but the fact remains that he ought to be cognisant of the ideas. The success of many of these schemes, perhaps all of them, is largely a matter of personality, and mere imitation on the part of a weaker or a totally different personality may mean failure as striking as has been the success of the original idea. It is not imitation that is needed but the kindling of fires, and these are often kindled by the torch of some one else's enthusiasm.

The selection of experiments is an arbitrary one. Every reader will know of one that is better than any herein described ; it should have been here, of course, but if all had been here there would have resulted a book too big to handle and too expensive to purchase. Other inquirers in this field have plenty of material left out of which to compile a record more suitable to their taste and temperament. No claim is made either of completeness or finality.

Furthermore we express neither approval nor disapproval. None of the accounts could be read to a jury of teachers and get a unanimous verdict. That is their merit. Only the common-

place wins unanimity; when there is nothing to disagree about there is usually nothing worth the disagreement.

Every one of these stories has as its basis a belief in the child and its infinite possibilities; every bit of work described has been done towards the development of those possibilities. Those who hesitate to follow these paths will therefore refuse to criticise unsympathetically the brave-hearted men and women who have blazed new trails.

The Editor thanks all his contributors, in his own name, for the help they have given to the fashioning of this picture of educational life, and, in the name of the profession, sends a word of greeting to those who have done so much to make of the schools of the nation, places of great joy to that young life in whose service it has been a privilege to spend their own maturer years.

CONTENTS

I

A FREE KINDERGARTEN: S. SAVIOUR'S CHILD-GARDEN, EDINBURGH

SAVIOUR'S Child-Garden is a Kindergarten in an Edinburgh slum. Of the first eight pupils only two had ever seen a train, not one had ever seen the sea or been in the country, and fairies and birthdays were completely unknown. The only animals with which they were familiar were horses, cows, dogs, and donkeys, and they applied these names to the animals shown them in pictures even of sheep, goats, and rabbits. A garden-roller was so much beyond their experience that they mistook it for a new form of bicycle. But they were endowed with a fair idea of personal possession, and soon asserted their ownership over a particular peg in the cloak-room or their own seats at table. They had their own small treasures, bits of chalk with which to scribble on the pavements, picture post-cards, advertisements, bits of slate pencil, and marbles, but no toys.

Their independence is shown in the fact that two of them, aged respectively four and a quarter and three and a half, raided the home of the elder one while the mother was out at work, barricaded the door with a chair, lit the gas-ring, made tea, and feasted on oatmeal and sugar.

The home environment was of the lowest type

and many of the parents sunk in dirt and drink. One of the pupils had a father who would not work, a mother who had to work in the fields all day, and grandparents of such a character that the child, who lived with them, found her chief amusement in playing at being drunk.

Their knowledge of God and of Nature is indicated in the question of the child who, after watching the sunshine fade and come back again, asked, 'What makes it come back? Does God turn a handle?' or in that of the one who inquired, 'Can God put Humpty Dumpty together again?' Their specialised knowledge of human nature finds its illustration in the following incident. The children were looking at a picture of a father-bird sitting on a branch near his mate. 'What is the father doing?' asked Miss Hardy, the genius of the adventure. 'Watching for fear a man in a shop will come and steal her' was the reply.

The school premises fall into two divisions—the school and the garden. The school was opened under Miss Hardy on All Saints' Day, 1906, and was at first held in a small Mission Hall belonging to Old S. Paul's Church. The entrance was by a narrow little door under a stair and looked as if it led to a coal-cellar. When the school was in session the altar was hidden behind a big Liberty curtain and all the ecclesiastical furniture was put away out of sight. The forms, chairs, and kneeling-mats then gave place to little tables and chairs, dolls and cradles, canaries and doves, brushes, dustpans, and dusters. As the Hall had been made out of two cottages, it contained two old-fashioned fireplaces and two sinks. The walls were panelled half-way up with green-painted wood; above they were washed

a light cream colour, so that, despite the forbidding nature of the entrance, the interior was bright and cheerful. Later on larger and more commodious premises were obtained.

The garden was just a piece of waste ground outside the back door. It was the common depository of all the rubbish from the surrounding houses, and the débris, that filled three scavengers' carts on its removal, contained amongst other relics of the past broken bottles, old tin cans, old boots and hats, bones, potato peelings, two dead puppies, and one dead cat.

The digging of a ground composed chiefly of stones, cinders, and rubbish was done thoroughly. A scavenger, father of one of the children, out of work for the day, other fathers, brothers, and one mother all gave their services with pick-axe, shovel, and riddle. In time the garden was dug two feet deep, the sods put at the bottom and covered with alternate layers of riddled earth and the horse manure that boys collected from the streets. The stones and rubbish were saved to raise the lower end of the garden in order to form a level playground for various kinds of ring games.

For a certain length of time the people of the slum continued to deposit their rubbish in the usual way; the garden was the legitimate dust-bin. But when two red-ash playgrounds had been laid down, a grass lawn had struggled into existence, and flowers—daffodils, wallflowers, daisies, cowslips—had added a gleam of colour to the otherwise sombre landscape, the habit of using the ground for the reception of glass bottles and dead cats disappeared. One night, when some boys made a raid over the fence in search of firewood on bonfire night, 'all the windies was

up and all the women was roarin' at them.' One neighbour had a window made in her wall that she might get a glimpse of the beauty that had come to the wastes. There had been a window there once before, but it had been blocked up and the recess used for a cupboard ; the cupboard was sacrificed for the view. And a little girl who had never set foot on the premises and had no connection with the school at all called out to an acquaintance, ' Come up and see weer garden.'

Fully fifteen minutes before time, every morning, the throng of eager infants besieges the schoolroom door. Boots are religiously scraped on the mat, hats and jackets are hung on ' your very own ' peg, and a school uniform is donned. This is a blue overall with red cuffs and collars, and serves both to hide deficiencies in clothes and to give a general air of neatness and cleanliness. The overalls are the property of the school, but the work of washing them each week is done by the mothers.

As soon as the uniform has been put on, the school nurse (there was no school nurse in the beginning, only Miss Hardy, single-handed) examines each of the children, bandages and binds, gives emulsions and chemical foods when necessary, and looks out for the first signs of infectious disease. The children chatter to their hearts' content, relating with much detail all their own home news and interests.

Following the inspection comes the singing of the good-morning song. This is a word of greeting to one another or to any object of affection suggested by the children—fishes, the sky, flowers —and so sincere and reverent are the little mites, that there does not appear to be anything unusual when they sandwich a good morning to

'dear God' between those to Santa Claus and the local fire-engine.

Marching and running serve to get up circulation or to let off steam, and then follows Home Lore. 'Each child is made responsible, for a week at a time, for some little service for the good of all. The most privileged person, who enjoys the distinction of wearing a white band, has the care, under supervision, of the altar, polishes the brass, and gives fresh water to the flowers. Others attend to the needs of the canaries, the doves and pigeons, and Bobbie the dog. Then there are chairs, desks, cupboards, piano, etc., to be dusted; the lobby and garden stairs to be swept, brass handles to be polished, dolls' cradles to be tidied, windows to be cleaned, fresh water to be given to flower vases, Miss Hardy's breakfast dishes to be washed and dried. . . . At 10 o'clock the bell rings. All the dustpans and such like are put into their right places, and the children form into lines. Preparation for prayers is the next process. Some much needed handkerchief practice is gone through, hands are inspected, and if not up to the required standard are submitted to the disgrace of being washed at school.'

So thoroughly is the lesson taught that cleanliness is next to godliness, that when the Rector asked Willie, 'How do we know that God is beautiful?' Willie promptly replied, 'Because He keeps Hissel' clean.' And Alfie, aged four and three-quarters, inhabitant of the dirtiest of homes, with a self-denial that under the circumstances is truly heroic, asked his mother, of his own accord, 'not to put trakle on his piece, for it would sticky his face and he didna like to bother the ladies to wash it.'

bell was rung, the horses took up their places by the engine, and a fireman, to save time, slid down a pole. 'Do it again, mister,' marked a sincere approval. Later on all these experiences furnished material for drawing helmets, wheels, ladders and hose, and for a song about the promptness and bravery of the Fire Brigade.

The most enterprising of these excursions actually took the form of a week in the country for nine of the children. Small as they were, they were too excited to mind parting with their mothers as the train moved off. A three-mile drive to the country house where they were accommodated was full of surprises, one of the greatest of which was, that, being unaccustomed to see anything at a distance, horses far away on the road were regarded as being really 'wee, wee horses.' The children never passed a gate without wanting to climb over it or look through it; they learned to go to bed early, a most unslumlike proceeding, and they gained an acquaintance with a number of useful nursery habits. They never forgot their homes, and, before returning, gathered marguerites and other flowers for their parents; one boy was rather distressed because his ha'pennies were scarcely sufficient to buy a chicken for his mother.

One of the pleasantest results of Miss Hardy's unwearying toil was the active interest it evoked in the parents of the children themselves. The school's rag doll, Mary, got a frock that a baby had outgrown; a father presented a canary and some birds' eggs, and another gave a barrow. And when the change was made, to which we have
ly referred, to larger premises, two of the
whitewashed the ceilings and distempered
six mothers held working parties

and did the necessary scrubbing, cleaning, and polishing. The actual removal took place on the occasion of a public holiday when all the shops and works were closed, but relays of working men, working for nothing but love of the school and its devoted head, carried on from six in the morning till six in the evening, and the total cost of the 'flitting' was sixpence for the hire of a barrow. Perhaps the most touching of all these stories of loving-kindness is that of the women of the slum collecting amongst themselves, every single parent contributing, sums of 1d. and 2d. a week to be given to Miss Hardy for the improvement of the oratory table in the church.

This interest showed itself in bigger and more adventurous enterprises, like the picnic which the mothers arranged and to which they invited the staff of the school and the Rector. They presented their guests with their railway tickets; two fathers went ahead to see that the tea was ready by the time the main body arrived, and the feast of ham-sandwiches, salmon-sandwiches, scones, cakes, sweets, strawberries, must have been a big drain on the small earnings of these grateful women.

A Mothers' Guild followed and met once a fortnight. The women drew up their own rules of membership and expressed their object as being co-operation between the school and the home. No one is allowed to be a member unless she has a child at the school, but the social meetings are thrown open to a wider circle of mothers.

We have no room to spare for an account of the Play Centre or the perfectly wonderful Garden Party that the children gave to the friends of the school. All these and much more may be read in Miss Hardy's *Diary of a Free Kindergarten*.

Prayers are of the simplest; after prayers the roll is called and the children divide, some to read, others to gain a practical experience of some of the mysteries of number, while the babies of three to five sit down to low tables in the kindergarten-room for a picture-chat, story, nature-talk, or finger-play.

'At 10.45 the children gather together again for little plays with arms and legs and fingers, which are the beginnings of physical culture. . . . Meanwhile the little band of Special Helpers, as the monitors for the week are called, are busily setting the lunch-table. The table-cloths are spread, and each child is given a little plate and mug. Then while "the big children" are learning expression in writing and drawing, the little ones sit down to the "pieces" they have brought from home, and hold cheery converse together.

'After lunch, comes free play. If the weather is suitable the children are in the garden, running, swinging, playing with pigeons, gardening, digging in the sand, watching the tortoise, or looking for new developments in the garden beds. If indoors, they play with balls or sand-bags, draw on linoleum fixed for that purpose to the wall, and in order that the discipline may not be too severe for their tender years, are allowed, for a few minutes, as much noise as they wish, provided no one's rights are disregarded. When the Special Helpers have performed their work of clearing away lunch, we march again into the kindergarten-room, and form a big ring for musical games and little plays. The first game the children choose generally has reference to the prime interest of the day. For instance, the day the joiner came to fix up shelves we all were turning imaginary screws in imitation, and singing a song which empha-

sised the honour and delight of being a working man.

'Next, preparations are made for seat work, and we, one and all, the school children having now finished their three R lessons, give our time to the so misunderstood and misused kindergarten occupations.'

When the occupations are finished, the school overall goes back to its peg, a good-bye song is sung, and the morning is ended.

After some months' experience of this kind of work, Miss Hardy had the wee tots brought back in the afternoon and put to bed. The beds are wooden frames, with canvas so laced to them that it can quickly be removed in order to be cleaned. The beds are set up, in the open air, by the bigger boys. Each bed is supplied with a blanket and a small chaff-filled pillow marked with the user's name. Newcomers are always a little suspicious of these beds and require some persuasion before they will take to them.

'Wouldn't you like to come and lie on this nice little bed?'

'Has it ony fleas in it?'

'Oh no!'

'My bed at hame has fleas in it. Ma feyther says he 's goin' to burn it, but he doesnae.'

School excursions were instituted; the first was to see the big elephant at Chambers Street Museum. A little fear as to whether he could move or not had to be removed before he could be observed with comfort; he was afterwards reproduced with more or less exactitude in plasticine. Then another party visited the Central Fire Station, where the firemen were evidently so much interested in their guests that they took endless pleasure in amusing them. The electric

Teachers, however, will want to know what was the effect of this upbringing when the children went to a more conventional school. For some account of this we may take the report of one of the teachers at the North Canongate School:—

'Eight children from S. Saviour's Child-Garden have been admitted during the past three months to this school, and placed in a class commencing Standard II. work. From the first these children have taken a keen interest in their work, have been most diligent, and have readily adapted themselves to the work as conducted in a large class.

'All except one (who has been handicapped by illness) have proved themselves quite proficient, some more so than others, in the different branches of the class-work. Four rank among the best in the class, and other three take a very good position. English in every case is particularly good, but in some cases a little weakness is shown in arithmetic. A point that is worthy of special mention is the very good behaviour of the children. They are most amenable, very mannerly, kindly natured, and truthful always.'

N.B.—The full and fascinating story of this experiment will be found in *The Diary of a Free Kindergarten*, by Lileen Hardy. (Gay and Hancock, Ltd. 3s. 6d.)

II

PHYSIOLOGICAL EDUCATION IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: MIXENDEN SCHOOL, HALIFAX

Founded on a personal visit and the report of a lecture by Mr. Arrowsmith to the New Ideals Conference, 1916

By H. MIDDLETON

EST the title should mislead we hasten to state that this is not an experiment in the teaching of physiology, but an experiment in educating children on true physiological lines.

Mixenden is a small village built round a large woollen factory, and lies on the bare slopes of the hills about 900 feet above sea-level and about four miles from Halifax. The rough winds and the generally bad weather often, for months at a time, prevent any form of out-of-door school games or occupations. The village is a typical East Riding industrial one, whose inhabitants work in the mills, or on the milk farms, or in the local quarries, or are in the service of the Halifax Corporation as roadmen.

The school is of the ordinary elementary type so far as the Board of Education regulations go, and contains about 130 children of both sexes and ranging in age from the infant stage to that at which the law permits the children to be dragged

out and harnessed to the industrial machine, that is somewhere about thirteen. The half-time system has long been in vogue and the few short years of normal school life thus further reduced.

It is nine years ago since Mr. Arrowsmith, the head master, decided to put his ideas into practice and to scrap a great many traditional and conventional school methods and pursuits. The old methods had failed to produce a people that were fond of literature or art or music, or who had any intellectual interests that would afford them the means of enjoying, in a rational fashion, the leisure that was all too precious because of its limited amount. Something new had to be tried.

The basis of the system that is here described is freedom—in the widest and truest sense—not an undisciplined licence to do whatever the whim of the moment shall determine, irrespective of the rights and pleasures of others, but a freedom to follow healthy natural impulses under wise guidance. To quote Mr. Arrowsmith's own words, 'The Mixenden School experiment was designed to help forward natural growth, and to free the child from mental and physical obstacles to development.'

The first thing to receive attention was the school premises. The furniture was of the old-fashioned rigid, uncomfortable type. One large class-room was emptied of most of its lumber and turned into a work-room where benches were set up and fitted with tools bought, borrowed, or made by the boys themselves. Here the productions of the 'educational furnisher' were overhauled, to the delight of the children. Desks and forms were cut down and adapted to suit the varying ages and needs of children of different

lengths of leg and width of frame. Each new desk was made for the use of the child that had to sit in it, and it was so constructed that it could easily be moved from one part of the room to another. The effect in creating an atmosphere of comfort, and freedom from undue restraint, was wonderful. In such a transformed class-room there were to be seen no longer rows and rows of children arranged in parallel lines, but a pleasant confusion of little people scattered about, some round the window, others round the fire, and yet others round the teacher's desk.

The usual concrete yard which does duty for the playing fields of Eton in an elementary school was retained for use in wet weather, but part of an adjoining field was obtained in order to permit of the formation of a school garden. Part of the ground was set aside for small plots for flowers and vegetables, a sand pit for the babies was constructed in one corner and swings were erected in another. The remaining ground was divided between a space in which to keep pets and a site for an open-air swimming bath. The whole of the original scheme has been completed with the exception of the swimming bath, and as it has all been and is to be accomplished by the children themselves, there may be some little delay before the bath materialises.

In all departments of the school activities great stress is laid on the importance of work done by the children themselves. The whole scheme is, first, a revolt against the idea that a child should be employed in absorbing chopped-up bits of adult experience and knowledge, and, secondly, a practical demonstration of the value of creation on the part of the child himself. The first and most important process in the early years of life

is on individual lines, along which the child gathers to himself, if allowed, all the necessary material for building up his bodily and mental parts. The second and more important process, in after years, is in learning to live in conformity with the herd or tribe. It is development of the divine, the communal spirit—the very matrix of the soul.

In order that the idea of the development of the spirit of communal life should grow unimpeded, all forms of competition have been abolished. There are no honours boards, mark lists, or class places or prizes; the idea of working to beat some one else is non-existent. The work that is done is accomplished because the worker has, first of all, a love for the task upon which he is engaged, and, secondly, because there is *much* freedom to follow one's own impulses, and to indulge in the delight of helping one another.

An account of a recent visit to the school will perhaps serve to illustrate how the ideas above expressed are carried out. The babies' room held some thirty little mites engaged in various pursuits. The teacher was at the piano and the middle of the floor space was occupied by half of the children, mostly girls, dancing. Amongst them was a maid of twelve dancing and posing in a delightfully graceful manner. The little ones were mainly imitating her and, in some cases, with great success. Each child was dancing alone, and it was interesting to notice the effect of a change in the music. A slow dreamy waltz would produce a flock of 'fairies' with waving wands and deep curtsies. A bright quick march would bring upflung heads and stamping feet, much to the delight of the male element in the class; one tune with a well-marked rhythm was hailed with delight as being a 'bear dance,' and the

children, with evident glee in face and movement, imitated the clumsy gestures of a bear dancing round a pole. As the children tired or lost interest in the dancing they dropped out, one by one, and found some other occupation.

In one corner of the room was a real little house, made by the older boys in the workshop, in which four children could sit on tiny stools round a miniature table. Here a dolls' tea-party was in progress and the visitor was invited to partake of the most delectable of imaginary refreshments. In another corner other mites were contentedly threading beads and looking at picture books. On every face, no matter what the occupation of the hands, sat a look of complete happiness that one always associates with ideals of a perfect childhood.

A small adjoining room was converted into a store-room for toys; shelves with small compartments had been fitted round the walls by the older boys, so that the children could take out and put away any toy for themselves. Two boys of about twelve were found overhauling the toys to see what repairs were needed. As a result of their inspection a cradle was taken to the work-room to receive a new rocker, and one or two books were removed for re-binding, for book-binding is but another of the many forms of handwork taught in the school.

The next class visited was the section into which the babies pass when they are sufficiently developed mentally to be able to profit by a slightly advanced form of training. The occupants of this room ranged from eight to nine years of age. Here they learn the three R's, not as a matter of mere duty but because they want to. That is, they learn to read, write, and figure

when they themselves feel the need of these accomplishments. A writing lesson was in progress. A simple story had been told to the children; this had been illustrated with pencil on paper and the children wanted to label the drawings. To label the drawings meant spelling and writing. Some of the more advanced were actually writing out the story in their own words; others contented themselves with single words descriptive of the objects they had drawn.

In another room were children of eleven to twelve grouped round a teacher who was reading some simple ballad to them. The interest exhibited in their faces was the only evidence required to prove their appreciation. Everybody was listening with an air of not wishing to do anything else. There was no need for discipline of the formal type, and believers in the guard-room form of discipline would have been horrified at the variety of attitudes achieved by the listeners, some of whom preferred to sit on the desk and use the chair as a footstool. It is in this class that a gradual change is made in the training, and the idea of communal life, with its demand that all shall work for the good of all as well as for oneself, is introduced.

After the age of twelve the children remain in one class till they leave, but there is considerable diversity in the interests pursued. Some of the boys may be in the work-room mending school furniture, binding books, or making original models. One or two boys may have atlases and note-books and be teaching themselves map-reading; another will be drawing plans and painting miniature scenes for a little stage, this same stage being in process of erection for the production of plays and the dramatisation of history lessons.

The girls are equally busy sewing, reading, writing essays. In the adjoining room they will be seen washing and ironing the table linen used by those who stay to dinner. This room is fitted with a stove and sink, and every day dinner is prepared by some of the older girls, for those who care to stay. In order further to develop these exercises in housewifery, a small cottage has been rented, and there the girls learn the best methods of cleaning and washing and the general routine of a well-kept house. All the older girls also have periods in the babies' room as a part of their education. Here they learn the needs, both mental and physical, of small children, and get an opportunity for a very elementary training in the duties of wifehood and motherhood.

It is scarcely necessary to state that the children reach the school-leaving age with the deepest regret. 'Oh that I could be five and start it all over again,' is the commonest of wishes.

Gardening is a characteristic feature of the work done at Mixenden. Each of the older children has his own plot on which he can grow anything he likes; in addition he is expected to help the smaller children in their gardening experiments and to assist in keeping the whole place clean and tidy. At first the garden was only approachable by a gate some way down the road, although it extended right up to the school wall. Some of the boys set to work and made a gap in the wall, while others manufactured a really ornamental gate out of some odd pieces of wood. All kinds of odds and ends are collected for the handwork of this school—old pails, tins, scraps of wood, iron, and cardboard; nothing is thrown away.

Before the war most of the children had pets—

rabbits, chickens, guinea-pigs, and pigeons—but owing to the high prices and the difficulty of procuring foodstuffs these interests have had to be resigned. It is hoped that ere long it will be possible to renew these valuable Nature-study lessons, for the observation and care of animals was the basis of quite a large part of Mr. Arrowsmith's curriculum.

Literature at Mixenden includes reading and writing and speaking the English language. With it are associated drawing, modelling, painting, school excursions and, in some cases, dancing. The school excursions lead to an acquirement of a knowledge of local flora, fauna, and geology; a study of local industrial conditions forms the material of lessons and debates on elementary civics.

The school possesses an interesting set of charts, one for each child. The health chart registers weight and measurement taken at regular intervals, and observations on general health during the different periods of growth. Another chart records the work and progress of the child, and indicates the way in which interest rises and falls in various subjects. As one would naturally expect, the records prove that if health is good and weight and height are normal, the rate of progress and the interest manifested in mental work are satisfactory. Any diminution of physical well-being is followed by a corresponding fall in the curve of interest and progress.

As already indicated, no pressure is put on any child to make it learn a given subject at some standard rate. Particularly is this the case with the three R's. The teacher waits till an interest in the subject is aroused, and then the child is given the opportunity to satisfy its new desires;

it has been found that the rate of progress then achieved easily makes up for the apparent delay in starting. Some children have been found to be 'word blind'; these do not learn to read until quite late in their school life, but they are often very intelligent and quick in other ways.

Mr. Arrowsmith has said, 'There is scarcely any need for me to say that such revolutionary changes in educational methods were not smiled upon by members of the inspectorate. Lacking knowledge of real child-training, they could not possibly understand our aims. All the schools they visited were of the same sort, and they had therefore built up a complex of fallacious ideas which no living man could break down at once.' We feel that Mr. Arrowsmith must have been unfortunate in his inspectors, but we record his remarks for the due admonishing of any other members of the tribe who may feel inclined to frown upon the unconventional.

III

DEVELOPMENTS IN SELF-ACTIVITY IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: KNUZDEN, BLACKBURN

Adapted from the report of Mr. O'Neill's lecture to the New Ideals Conference, 1918, by H. Middleton

TANDING on the high roads of Scottish Lancashire you can look down on the towns in the hollows, which resemble black swabs of smoke, and here is Knuzden, the scene of this experiment.

As to the children, the following are types :—

Bessie Milton is a little half-timer, aged twelve, who squints.

One morning the head master received a letter about her from which the following is an extract :—

'Bessie Milton says: "Please, ma'am, I didn't like sweeping looms. I used to have to go right under to sweep them while they was going. She used to stop 'em if the manager was there and then she swept them hereself. And she used to kick yer 'eels." Several of the children have complained of fear of the machinery, especially of the belting.'

Lily Pearson is another little pale squint-eyed half-timer with stooping shoulders, who 'always

likes playing out after t' mill.' She has spent some of her time in the Cottage Homes.

Herbert Frankland gets up at 5.30, works at the mill till 12.30, attends school from 1.30 to 4, and from then till dark cleans out a shippon. One morning Herbert was wanted out of school. His mother had gone to the mill at 6 A.M., and there was another baby at 10 A.M. The baby slept in the same bed as the parents and two other children, while four others, including a boy of fifteen and a girl of seventeen, slept in the other room. One brother, little Willie, a ghastly looking child, said, 'I don't like to go to bed somehow.' Little wonder. The eldest boy was persuaded to make a single bed for the baby for 1s. 6d.

John Lightbrown is another boy—undersized, without a roof to his mouth, unable to eat solid food, to speak plainly, to read, or to write—a half-timer, but at last dismissed from the mill for continual sickness.

There you know the school, and what it is. It was a difficult school. In overcoming the difficulties the head introduced new methods in every subject, and in the end found that he had developed a self-active school in which class teaching had no place. His attitude towards school work was largely influenced by what he found inside the school, and by what he saw outside of the lives of the children and grown-ups too. In school, apathy and listlessness, an absolute imperviousness to all oral lessons, much evil-doing, and no background whatever of information either from books, teaching, or experience. Outside school there was the great gulf which lay between their mode of life and that of educated people.

Mr. O'Neill was determined to do something that would alter these lives. He was prepared

to risk getting no results in the old sense, if he could better the children's lives in any way; but in the end the results were there too.

As a boy he was himself always happy when making things, or tinkering with materials of all sorts, and he had by him odds and ends of nails, saws, hammers, electrical apparatus—in fact, just the sort of miscellaneous collection, on a larger scale, that you find in a boy's pocket.

Almost furtively at first he brought out these things, and with some old boxes for timber, an old sixpenny saw, and a certain amount of ingenuity for appliances, set to work to make *things*. It was almost magical to see the appeal to the children. Doing things? That wasn't quite school, so they got up and acted like sane beings. No scheme of work was prepared. Everything made was needed by the children either for school or home. The aim was to reach the real child somehow, and it was found that in doing things and making things the aim was accomplished. The handwork was not making models, but real things, because though a child may like to make a paper shovel or a paper saw for want of being allowed to make something better, he would much prefer to use a real shovel or a real saw. Again, progression, as understood in handwork teaching, does away with imagination. Progression substitutes another person's ideas for the child's own. One cannot safely say that in such and such a way will a child's association of ideas work. In the present conception of handwork teaching, the idea is continually cropping up that the teacher shall determine whether a child has reached the stage to attempt a certain thing, but the child's reach should exceed its grasp, and the teacher should not say 'No' to

the child who wishes to step out beyond the thing planned for children of his age.

This idea that the child could attempt anything accounted for the success of the handwork and all other work. They said continually, 'We can make anything.' Consequently they lacked little that was desirable for school, neither furniture nor apparatus. In the handwork the boys were turned into inventors and discoverers. They fitted themselves out with tools and appliances, made from such humble material as is obtainable by any one. They were not like the boys from a Manual Centre, who do not carry their work beyond the school door for lack of tools. There was no workshop, no benches, only cheap saws, hammers, and boxes, but they planned and schemed and made for themselves cutting boards, planing boards, vices, planes, and benches, so that they should have their tools to take with them on leaving school. Most of these things were made by breaking up old school desks. Then they set to work to make dainty desks and seats fit for a home, to replace the old pitch-pine ones. They made beds and cots for the overcrowded homes, chairs, cretonned ottoman stools, bookcases, sideboards, armchairs, all of which sold readily. The work did not cease at the school door; *e.g.* one boy said: 'I got up at 5 o'clock to make one of those seats' (a margarine box padded with old rags and camouflaged with cretonne). 'You see, sir, we have only two chairs at our house.' The same boy made a table with a polished oval top (the side of a tea-box, fixed on half a margarine box with blind-stick legs angled for strength), and a round overmantel with a copy of a Romney in it. Half jesting, his master said, 'You 'll have a house of furniture when you get married,' and

he replied quite seriously, 'Yes, and I 'll be able to say I 've made it all myself.'

In spite of the fact that all the joints were unorthodox, made with nails, glue, and ingenuity, the articles looked well and were full of taste; they held together, and were real things which any boy was proud to take home. Finish and pride in good workmanship came to the boys too, after many failures or experiments. The boys began to see the need for set-square work, neat finish, good joints, etc. This came equally soon to the younger boys as to the older. A boy of Standard III. made a rabbit-hutch with a run—a real one with a rabbit in it, and not a paper model—in every way the equal of that made by the eldest boy. Perhaps a list of what was made will convey an idea of how far they went. Remember everything was full size and actually fulfilled its purpose. Weighing machines to weigh an adult; large scales to weigh adults sitting in an armchair on one side; large weights which were boxes filled with stones, old iron, and lead, etc.; small scales with saucer pans with sets of weights in lead, glass bottles full of coloured water, tins weighted, and sand tied in bags; height measures giving the height in metres and inches, yard rulers made of blind-sticks; large toy-shops with real shelves, counter, drawer, and chair for shopman; large dolls' beds; babies' cots; single beds, armchairs, sideboards, bookcases, table book-racks, plant stands, ottomans, large boards and easels, beds for babies who fell asleep in school, spelling boards for backward children, inkstands, wooden paint-boxes, overmantels containing copies of famous pictures, tables, chairs, hutches, etc. The aim was to create in school, with their own hands, all the school furniture, and to make the

school, not a pitch-pine barracks, but a comfortable place—a refined home.

In the early stages a great deal of time was given up to woodwork. The boys were so keen that it seemed a pity to stem their eagerness by making them stop work. School time was all too short. Some were back for 'night school,' as they called it, before others had gone home. All one winter that night school was held, often by candlelight, and children of all ages from five to seventeen came long distances on dark nights, guiding their footsteps through fog and snow with a lighted candle in a glass jar, to work, read, dance, and sing.

But handwork as a subject slipped more and more into the background. It came to be accepted as the natural thing in the school that one should be constantly making and doing things, and it was soon found that the handwork, as well as putting into the child's hands a means of employing its leisure and free activity, was quickly stimulating other work. Having made bookcases, the children wanted books; having made a rabbit-hutch, they needed a book on rabbits; in fitting up the electric bell, a book on electricity; and soon, in addition to the literary books, there was a library of scientific books scattered on tables for reference and research.

When overmantels and picture frames were made, pictures were naturally wanted; cheap but excellent copies of the best pictures were offered for sale, and were eagerly bought. The school was, in fact, made into a centre for selling little refinements for the children's homes.

As the aim was to make for themselves all the things that were desirable, the children had to use every possible available material in all classes,

from the babies upwards. Infants even asked to be allowed to ' make somefin' wiv a saw.'

The method in the handwork of keeping to no set time-table, working to no progressive scheme, but following the lure of the moment, and of letting each child do his own work, effectually freed the discipline of the school. Gone were the rows of faces, pale and bored. The children were all busy. There was plenty of healthy noise, for in such a method the natural co-operation of everyday life was bound to come in. Here and there a chance occurred to bring in a new idea, a new subject. There was no need to teach a class. One or two children were shown, and they taught others, till the whole class knew the method.

In order to get the children to love literature, the school was filled with tables (long desks, back to back) covered with Zeppelin curtains from the windows. On these Mr. O'Neill arranged his own books, including story books, catalogues (such as Gamage's and Arnold's), tourist guides and music, books of famous pictures such as *Bibby's Annual.* The children were asked to subscribe for more, and they did so, regularly every week. Eventually they provided about a hundred books in all. The tables were tastefully arranged with flowers and pictures, and the books were there, ready for constant use and examination by the child.

As soon as a child could read plainly, in whatever class it might be, the teaching of reading for that child was dropped. Henceforth it read, for leisure and pleasure, sitting in a comfortable position, where and how it liked. Boys were seen at night school, tired out with sawing, lying on the floor by another boy's candle to read.

Alfy Bentham, the dullest boy in the school, was seen, driven at last by physical exhaustion, to take to reading, pick up a book and become so interested that when some one fell over his feet he never looked up.

No matter where this real reading was introduced for the first time, whether with infants or boys of fifteen, they always began with the penny fairy tale; but as well as the short fairy tales, the well-illustrated children's editions of the classics were obtained, and the children bought the books in the shops. The boys and girls found the bookshops most absorbing. They had not even known where they were before. Once a boy was lost; he was discovered sitting on the floor behind the counter, reading a book which he hadn't bought. He was so used to reading whatever he saw.

There was also a 'Book Club' to which the children subscribed pennies weekly. With the money, books were bought which were balloted for each week, and all became possessors of books. Some bought a dozen in the first year at from 6d. to 1s. each.

Side by side with the love of good books grows the love of poetry. The feeling for poetry is a tender plant, which cannot be forced simultaneously in every child in a class; so the learning of poetry was dropped, except that the pupils read to one another in little circles, and occasionally they had a poetry concert when all were expected to contribute, some reciting from memory, others merely reading. Mr. O'Neill placed on the reading table all his own copies of the poets. They bought new editions beautifully illustrated. He showed the children, by reading the books himself and in his conversation with them, that he

loved poetry. He sang every poem he could, until the children began to do so for themselves.

Many of the girls and boys, when left to their choice, read poetry and learned much more than usual. Many bought copies of Longfellow in the Book Club. One boy begged to be allowed to have a 4½d. copy of Kingsley's poems, the only cheap one obtainable. When asked why, he said, 'You see, sir, I want to have a copy of all the poets—Tennyson, Burns and Longfellow, and all of them.' Dainty little autograph albums were made, which the children got teachers to sign. This set the style; the albums were soon full of good quotations—hundreds of exercises in taste—and some came to be mottoes, such as:

> 'My strength is as the strength of ten
> Because my heart is pure.'

> 'The man of independent mind
> Is king o' men for a' that.'

Then they made tiny shaped books into which were copied favourite poems or fragments. Each book had a suggestive title, such as *Pearls of Great Price*, *Above Rubies*, *Culled Flowers*, etc., the titles supplied at first by the teachers and in time by the children. This same idea of book making was the secret of the success in composition. 'Composition' was dropped and book making began, the books being put on the reading table just like bought books. First of all the book backs were made, cardboard covered with art wall-paper or cretonne and tied up with ribbon or raffia. Of course, having got a pretty book back, there was no lack of enthusiasm to make a book to put inside it. Every child wrote fairy stories and fairy plays. These were written

roughly, as authors write, on scrap paper, very full of alterations. They were corrected by the children themselves, then submitted to the head, and last of all, neatly written or printed and bound in the back. The children read each other's stories most eagerly, and side by side with the free reading, the plot, style, and freedom from mistakes rapidly improved. There was no drudgery of correction. The children never saw that the writing out for a book was correction.

At first the titles were suggested, but in time children came to Mr. O'Neill: 'May I write a story called "The Wonderful Shoes, or When the World bumped into the Sun"?' Children then began to make books at home or went to night school to do them. But even with picture post-cards on the front, the books did not make such an appeal as was desired to the younger children. So Mr. O'Neill began a series of shaped books, the back and pages being shaped to suit the title, *e.g.* 'The Fairy Butterfly' like a butterfly, 'The Witch's Hat' shaped like a hat. The younger children became wildly enthusiastic for them and never tired of making stories. The appeal through the hand and eye seemed to stimulate their imaginations. In some specially backward cases the effect was wonderful. Several boys wrote who had never written anything legible before. And they were so proud to have their books on the table and their names on the list of Authors' Latest Publications! Their composition never looked back from the first book they made, and in one case the children said: 'Why, teacher used to say Tom Walsh was stupid, and now he's made a book!' whilst Tom's big brother confided: 'Somehow Tom never used to get on at school, but he likes it now.'

Geography and history were brought in by similar methods. Subjects for books were given, such as *Farming in Canada*, by Jim Barlow, *Fred Ashton's Travels in Africa*, *My Tour in India*, by Robert Broughton, and so on. Similarly, in history, the story and personal side was used, *e.g. Our Village Three Thousand Years Ago*, *The Story of Knuts Dene*, etc. Such books involved accurate research. But for fluency, which is the first necessity in composition, there was nothing to equal the purely imaginative story.

Mr. O'Neill, being himself a lover of music, wished the children to share this pleasure also with him. He began his music appeal with songs —songs and plenty of them. He did not slog at them until the children knew them. He sang them over and left the music on the music table. The children handled the music and at last asked him to play again. He played at almost any time during the afternoon for any child. Often he would sit down and begin to play just as he would do at home. He would sing, and a few children would gather round. Work went on as usual, and children joined in it if they wished to. The one rule was—no hammering whilst music went on, as it was rude. After a good hearty chorus, the hammers would beat out again with twice the will to work.

A music table was instituted, on which were put some of Mr. O'Neill's own music and all the school selections usually retained for teachers' use. Groups of children would ask him to play for them or would sit and sing without the piano through a whole book of songs. It was found that Sullivan's light operas were especially suitable to children. They picked up the tunes without knowing the words. The results must

be judged by the fact that Sullivan, Mozart, Beethoven, Schubert were heard whistled all over the village to the sound of the clogs on the pavements.

There still seemed to be something missing, however, for other music than songs was wanted. At last Mr. O'Neill got it—the music of motion. Whilst he played the girls danced, not in couples, but singly, each interpreting the music in her own way. At first they were shy, but it was not long before they left their work, danced until fatigued, and settled back again all the better for it. Even the boys too were eager to try. The girls wore draperies, such as floating wings, which they had made. They went night after night to night school for that also. One night three of them were found dancing in a country lane to Beethoven's 'Adieux,' which they were singing softly. This dancing seemed to satisfy a longing in some of the girls, often most unexpected cases too. There was a poor little squint-eyed mill-girl, who just hovered about with arms outstretched like a broken butterfly, but whose shining eyes told how she was drinking in the music.

It might be argued that this method of freedom and self-help, whilst applicable to the arts, would not work out as well with sciences. But the history of science shows quite clearly that science is only advanced by the men who work on free lines. A science table was provided—just a trestle—and attached was an old Bunsen-burner. A book was drawn up of suggested experiments designed to make boys discover the scientific laws for themselves, and they were told that they could do anything they pleased. On the table were put glass tubing, lumps of lead and electrical apparatus, as well as plenty of books on the

subject. There was no teachers' library, but the children had access to all the books in the school. Soon they had an electric bell ringing, fixed up by two boys, and many other experiments were being worked out.

There still remained the arithmetic. The results in this were very bad, so it was necessary to adopt a practical method throughout.

From the usual practical arithmetic there sprang up a system in which every child in the class had a calico bag, in which was put apparatus such as coins, bank-books, jam-jars, boxes, cut-up tape measures, string, wood painted to represent a chop, real bills, etc., on which sums were based. The children watched and helped to make up the bags and sums. The bags were like lucky bags, and children were eager to see what was in them. In time every child worked through the whole set, and it was found that by this method every arithmetical process could be discovered by the children. They were allowed to help each other, as children often have a knack of explaining things to each other which is denied to teachers. They marked each other's work. Children cheat either from fear or from boredom. There is no point in copying the answer when you are keen on weighing the jar given in the bag for yourself, and on filling it with water and finding the volume and weight of the water contained. It is all so interesting to the child.

For the infants and lower classes there were big shops, where the children played freely, the teacher merely marking the bills which they made up. The details of the arithmetic scheme are, however, too long for this paper.

Practical teachers will ask what check was kept on the work. No teachers' record of work

was kept, but being continually amongst the children, Mr. O'Neill made a rough list and note of what work each child had on hand. As the children were constantly asking for materials, this was very easy to do. Occasionally he went through the list, asked to see the child's work, and made a further note of what had been done since he made the record. The pupils are told that they should do every week some reading, music, science, arithmetic, etc. How they do it, when they do it, how they apportion their time, does not matter. It is the difference between time-work and piece-work. School seems all too short, and hours of overtime are put in even when the head is not there. Each child keeps a weekly diary of work done, so that Mr. O'Neill has a complete grasp of every child's work. The extraordinary amount of work done and the rapid progress made depend much on this piece-work and on the responsibility of each child. They can organise their own work and often make schemes of composition—chapters in their books, to cover many weeks' work.

On this method there is no break between school and home. The child takes home his own-made bench and tools, his books, bookcases, desk, seat, blotters, inkstands, pictures, the books he has written; and he has a school of his own at home. He has formed habits of living, and school has become part of his life.

In introducing self-activity into a school one thing is needed—an abundant faith in the child. We are so apt to think that a child needs teaching. It seldom does. It needs a world of opportunities put in its way. The teacher is one of them, the one to whom the child can turn for advice and help; he is no longer the only person who

lives in the class-room, the master-hand playing on the instrument (the class being the instrument, of course), but one of a community all self-active; he is simply older and wiser than the rest.

IV

A BOARDING SCHOOL FOR THE CHILDREN OF WORKING MEN: THE CALDECOTT COMMUNITY

By ENID COGGIN

THE Caldecott Community is the only boarding school for working-men's children. It is one of many experiments based on principles of co-education and non-collective teaching, but for the first time the material for the experiment is the child of the London artisan, the child who would normally attend the Council schools. These schools, however well organised, provide an incomplete education. They are at best an escape from the life of the streets, a respite for the child from the difficulties of his home. In no way do they fit him to face the problems of life. The Caldecott Community aims at presenting an education which is not only a preparation for life, but is life itself in miniature.

The children are equally members of the Community with the grown-ups. Charlton is as much their home as it is the home of the staff, and this they realise, or rather they have never imagined that it could be otherwise. Even the dolls are treated with respect: their clothes are marked with their owner's name and properly laundered before the children's arrival at the beginning of the term. In the girls' dormitories a tiny bed may be seen standing by most of the beds, and

if a doll is in need of a bed, pains are taken by some grown-up person to procure one. During the summer nearly every child possesses a rabbit, which is fed and caressed and neglected and even 'trained.' Ethel was discovered beating her rabbit one morning—very mildly, it must be confessed; she explained that it had disobeyed her.

The day starts at seven with the bell, and by half-past a number of children are downstairs to fulfil certain duties. Some lay breakfast, some are responsible for the supply of logs and firewood, and in the winter months this is no light job. Others have work to do in the farmyard before eight o'clock. After breakfast the babies have games and singing while the elder children have drill, or a run on cold days. Study is from nine till twelve. During this period the children either work by themselves or have lessons from one of the Directors or assistant teachers.

From twelve to one is playtime. After dinner there is more time for play until the study bell rings at half-past two. The afternoon is chiefly devoted to handwork. The Directors lay great stress on the importance and value of manual dexterity, and every effort is made to train the children's hands as well as their minds to the fullest extent. To this end divers kinds of handicrafts are learned in the Community, including penmanship. Handwriting is indeed studied with a meticulous care worthy of the Victorian era, and the children's handwriting is really beautiful. Drawing and design are taught side by side with penmanship.

The Community is fortunate in possessing two hand-looms, and weaving is learned by all the older children, who are taught to set up their own warp; they learn how to design their own material

as well as the mechanical operation of throwing the shuttle. Spinning is about to be added to the list of handicrafts, and the children are looking forward to spinning the wool from the Community's sheep and weaving it on the looms. All kinds of needlework are taught, and a cloth woven and embroidered by the children themselves has been made for the chapel.

Tea is at half-past four; from five till bedtime is occupied in various ways. Cooking lessons are given twice a week, and all kinds of exciting dishes are turned out and appear on the children's supper-table, much to the delight of the amateur chefs. On being asked to define stock, Alice replied, 'Stock is a pot into which you put all kinds of *thinks*.' A workshop has been installed in the old apple-loft, and here eight of the elder boys and girls have carpentry lessons. They are already turning out well-made and beautiful things for the use of the Community, as well as learning to make contrivances for their own pleasure. The latter include the orthodox street trolley, which object has been the occasion of much joy and not a few bandaged limbs.

In all proper homes bedtime and the hour that precedes it are made the pleasantest time of the day. At the Community this tradition is carried on. Bedtime does not mean primarily the resigning of the body to sleep—it means social amenities. Hot baths are in themselves agreeable, and the grown-up who superintends the operation is free to chat and hear the news or receive confidences. After bathing comes reading. Each dormitory has its book and a grown-up to read it aloud. The elder children go down in their dressing-gowns to the Director's sitting-room, where a more advanced book is read to

them. Reading at the Community always means discussion, and the grown-up is frequently interrupted by 'Do you think that was right?' 'Would you have done that?' This hour is a very valuable one for the insight it gives into the working of the children's minds. They are for the most part very willing to talk, and eager to think things out, and the comments they make are often most enlightening.

Saturday is a whole holiday, but it is nevertheless a very busy day. After breakfast an assembly of the whole school is held, at which any child may bring forward any grievance and have it discussed and dealt with by the whole school. All grumbling during the week is discountenanced, and the grumbler is told to bring his complaint to Assembly on Saturday morning. When grievances have been disposed of, the confiscation bag is brought in, and property restored to its owners with penalties.

Next, volunteers are called for to do the Saturday morning jobs. The farmyard has an extra spring clean, the hair brushes have to be washed, the spoons and forks have to be polished. Some one is needed to scavenge on the lawns, and remove the odd bits of paper and rubbish which have accumulated during the week. The churchwardens clean the chapel ready for Sunday, while another child arranges the flowers. Some children offer willingly for every job as it is announced; some keep their hands discreetly by their sides until some special duty takes their fancy; others prefer to wait until a job is allotted to them.

Then, until dinner-time, the Community presents a scene of feverish activity. At every corner children are busy with something, and the grown-ups still busier, helping first one group

and then another, pausing to admire the progress made by a very small child, or to admonish a slothful one. After dinner, pennies are given out from the school bank, and an expedition is made into the neighbouring village to buy sweets and execute commissions for the people who are left behind. In the summer, picnics take the place of shopping excursions, and Edmund, the donkey, is pressed into the service to carry the tea and as many children as can squeeze into the cart at once.

From time to time the adult members of the Community are astonished at the things they read in the newspapers about the work of their hands. According to the Press, the Community is an astounding success. Study is no longer any trouble to the children. It is, indeed, made so attractive that the children prefer it to play. Statements of this kind are so highly improbable that the reader is apt to discredit whatever other commendable things he hears of the Community. Such eulogy is almost on a par with the remark of a villager overheard at a fête at Charlton, 'These children aren't treated like other children. They are never punished; they are just asked to do different.'

As a matter of fact, the Caldecott children do prefer playing in the garden to studying in the house, and it has been found necessary to make study hours compulsory. The main feature of the study at the Community is its insistence on individual work and non-collective teaching. This theory is pretty generally held by modern educationists, and the Directors are often told, 'It is very easy for you to carry out your theories with your small numbers, but with a class of fifty or sixty it is impossible to put them into

practice.' This complaint is due to a misunderstanding of the principle involved. The Caldecott children do not have more teaching than other children—in fact, they have distinctly less. The Directors realise that it is not the instruction given that is of value to the child, but the work that he does by himself, in his own way and at his own pace. Dictionaries are used freely at the Community, and a very common answer to the children's questions is, 'Find out for yourself.' John has a way of discovering new gems of thought in his grammar which his teacher has omitted to point out. Books are a priceless gift. The Community cannot afford to provide its children with text-books, and a grammar or dictionary is accepted by a child as a personal possession with joy and gratitude.

Each child has a certain number of lessons or coachings a week either by himself or in a group of two or three. The rest of his time he works by himself. Failure to do such work means forfeiting the next lesson with his teacher. This process has proved itself to be the most economical both of time and energy. The teacher knows each child individually, and wastes no time in labouring points which are already clear, or in presenting ideas too far beyond the child's comprehension.

The Community is in the heart of the country, and the children are gradually becoming country children; though many of them keep in their hearts the true Londoner's love of the great city. 'I like being here,' said Denys, manfully struggling with home-sickness on the first morning of term, 'but I miss London.' 'How is that, Denys?' asked one of the staff. 'Well,' he replied thoughtfully, 'there are so many horses and carts

in London.' When the Community first came to the country, the children had to be content with looking at the neighbours' farms, and envying them their sleepy cows, fat sheep, and pert, brisk hens.

Now there is a real farm at the Community, and all the children are farmers. Relays of them go through an elementary course of training in looking after poultry, rabbits, pigs, and cows, and even in keeping the farm accounts. Milking is, of course, the supreme privilege, and at this Rupert is rapidly becoming an expert. 'Now then, old sport,' he apostrophises the cow, 'let down your milk.' Rupert's whole heart is in the farm; since he was a tiny child he has persistently maintained his ambition to be a farmer. John clings to his old love, the kitchen garden. He has a very large plot of his own, which is not always tidy, but which is very precious. He is never so happy as when he is working on this piece of ground, or helping the gardener in the larger sphere devoted to the Community's vegetables.

Since the Caldecott Community is an experiment in democracy, the principle of self-government is early insisted upon. As far as possible all laws are made with the common consent of the Community. A small house-committee consisting of seven of the elder children act as prefects or monitors, keeping order and looking after the younger children. The house-committee hold formal meetings once a week, with one of the Directors in the chair. At these meetings the affairs of the Community are discussed, from the effect of spreading jam on bread too long before tea-time, to the ethics of compulsory Chapel.

At present there is no provision in the Com-

munity for children of secondary school age, and the elder children will be drafted into different types of secondary schools as circumstances permit. When funds are forthcoming, the Community hopes to extend its premises, enlarge its staff to accommodate more children, and continue education up to the age of leaving school. As for the future of the children, that will be as they choose to make it. The Community will see to it that they have every opportunity of discovering and developing their talents, and of equipping themselves for whatever work they choose to make their own.

V

AN OPEN-AIR SCHOOL: THACKLEY, BRADFORD

By G. NORMAN

THE children of the above school are of both sexes, and the ages range from five to fourteen years.

They assemble in Foster Square (*i.e.* the tram terminus in the centre of the city) at 8.30 A.M., and remain at Thackley until 6.30 P.M. in summer and until 5.30 P.M. in winter. Between these hours the children are altogether out in the fresh air—for lessons, meals and 'rest.' All teaching is done on verandahs or out in the open fields and woods, class-rooms being merely used as storage places. The cold of winter is combated by wrapping up in rugs and by frequent intervals for exercise and games.

A number of boys are 'residential,' *i.e.* they remain at school from Monday morning until Saturday, sleeping in one of the rest sheds.

Whilst the children are grouped for purposes of registration, classification upon mental attainments is impossible. Many children, previous to admission, have been excluded from ordinary school for months or even years. Some children, on the other hand, who are admitted, are of mental attainments beyond their years. Then, too, a number of children are discharged each week and

others admitted each week to their places. Consequently the teacher is trained to treat his or her class, not as a group of similar units, but as a number of children differing greatly in physical and mental condition. This makes the work of the teacher more complex and correspondingly difficult.

Just as the medical officer makes a careful diagnosis of the child's physical condition upon admission, so the teacher makes a diagnosis of its mental condition. This takes place a day or two after admission, when the child is accustomed to the strangeness of its circumstances. The child is submitted to a series of psychological tests, from the results of which the nature and efficiency of the child's mental processes are learned.

(The German revision of the Binet-Simon scale is used for this purpose.)

The disparity in physical and mental condition of the children, together with the constant incursion and excursion, determines the character of the teaching methods employed. Activity being the basal fact of life and purposive activity being the keystone of the bridge of mental development, it follows that handwork, in addition to being a sure and safe aid to the re-establishment of the child's physical well-being (minimising any risk of mental over-pressure), is also a sure and safe method of mental training; the mind develops best under the stimulus of reality.

The teaching, then, is made as practical as possible, an attempt being made to base every lesson on some form of activity.

Arithmetic.

Advantage is taken of the unique opportunity

that the situation of the school affords to amplify the instruction the children receive in ordinary schools. Most of the children are drawn from the crowded areas of the town. Acres, roods, poles, etc., have no real meaning to them. Very few children have any idea of what extent an acre is. The fields of the immediate neighbourhood provide an excellent opportunity for realising such terms. Acres, roods, poles are marked out on the playing field. The children carefully observe, say, the unit of an acre; they are taught to visualise the acre.

Next they are taken to fields of varying sizes and practised in estimating the acreage of each. These estimates are compared with the sizes given on ordnance maps, or with sizes given by the neighbouring farmer. After some practice, the children are able to estimate with commendable accuracy the sizes of various fields.

Next, soliciting the help of the farmer, estimates are made of the cropping of an acre. They are taught to recognise a 'good,' 'fair' or 'poor' crop, and the equivalent of each in tonnage per acre. The farmer will also give the current price of a ton, say, of hay. It is easy then to estimate, roughly, the worth of the neighbouring hayfields. Similarly, the worth of fields of other crops can be estimated, and thus acres, roods, poles, etc., become realities, a new interest is created, and the child's fears of 'square-measure' calculations dissipated.

All the garden crops are carefully weighed by the children, who keep records of weights, and calculate worth after ascertaining current prices. These weighings form the basis of most of the work in avoirdupois, whilst the costing forms the basis of calculations in money.

Geography.

In geography the teacher is aided by the fortunate situation of the school, for the hills, valleys, river, canal, etc., form the accessible realities from which the fundamentals of practical geography are learned. Contour maps are made of the district immediately surrounding the school, and the older children practise reading the ordnance maps. Huge outline maps of Yorkshire, England, or the British Isles are permanently marked upon the verandah floors, and by the use of sand relief maps are built on these outlines. The great size of the maps permits of quite a number of children working at the same time. The use of chalk in the building of 'the Downs' and of other rocks for other ranges makes an indelible impression upon the child's mind, of the variety of structure of the highlands.

History.

History is taken on the 'concentric' plan and much use is made of the child's love of the 'make believe' to dramatise the chief events in British history. Many models in wood and stone are constructed to illustrate the lessons, *e.g.* Stonehenge, Saxon Village, Norman Castle.

Singing.

Singing is valued as a recuperative physical exercise as much as for its æsthetic worth. Exercises to improve breath control are given and the use of the nasal passages is insisted on.

In addition to old English folk-songs, many simple rounds and catches are taken which beget a love of simple harmonies.

The learning of a great number of melodies and

rounds is aimed at rather than the technical perfection of a few, the idea being that a great number of 'catchy' self-assertive sensible tunes will supplant the drivel so unfortunately prevalent among children.

Speech Sounds.

To remedy the mispronunciation, indolent articulation and enunciation from which many of the children admitted to the open-air school suffer, special speech-sound lessons are given. The lips and mouth muscles are often very little used; the production therefore becomes throatal and indistinct, instead of consisting of sharp, clear-cut consonants and pure sonorous vowels.

Exercises in 'lip-gymnastics' are taken and a collection of alliterative nonsense sentences (*e.g.* 'Peter Piper picked a peck,' etc.) serves a useful purpose.

Gardening.

Gardening forms a very important part of the curriculum. An area is occupied in the cultivation of vegetables for consumption in the school dining-room. This area is divided into plots which are apportioned to the children—boys and girls. Each plot is cultivated by two children who keep records of sowing and cropping. The flower gardens in front of the school are cultivated chiefly by the girls, who are also responsible for the raising of all flowers from cuttings.

The work of the garden forms the subject of many lessons in arithmetic, drawing, and composition.

Repair Work.

To a great extent the repair work of the school

is done by the children. The boys mend the beds and deck-chairs and make garden frames—including glazing. The girls, in their needlework lessons, keep the towels, rugs, sheets, pillow-cases, sleeping apparel, etc., in good condition.

Personal Hygiene.

The children are taught the value of personal cleanliness. Each child receives a shower bath once a week and instruction is given daily in the method of clean washing. Separate towels are provided; each child has its own distinctive tooth-brush, and teeth cleansing is practised daily under the instruction and superintendence of a teacher.

Very many children are found upon admission to be mouth breathers. This is frequently the result of ignorance of the use of the pocket-handkerchief; consequently handkerchief drill is taken frequently. It precedes all breathing and singing exercises, and special care is taken that this drill is performed immediately preceding 'rest' time, to encourage children to sleep with mouths closed.

Meals.

The children are served three meals per day. Upon their arrival in the morning they receive a breakfast of porridge and warm milk; at noon they have a substantial dinner (stews, soups, fish and suet and milk puddings), and before going home they receive their final meal, generally bread and jam and warm milk. A few children, upon admission, are somewhat difficult to manage as regards their food. These are generally children whose parents, anxious about the children's waning appetites, endeavour to tempt the children

to eat by offering them sweets and confections. The plain wholesome food as supplied at the school does not at first appeal to them, but the tactful persuasion of the teacher, greatly aided by the healthy hunger that exposure to the fresh air begets, soon overcomes these scruples, and they eat with the heartiness of the majority.

Table monitors are appointed from among the older boys and girls—serving a week in turn. Each monitor presides at a table, and he or she is instructed to encourage the children to display those little niceties of table behaviour that make meal-taking a pleasant social function as well as a physiological necessity.

Domestic Work.

The older girls assist in turns in the kitchen work, preparation of meals, and general cleansing, whilst the boys prepare potatoes, turnips, etc. Spoon cleaning is also a duty of the boys.

Rest.

After dinner the children cleanse their mouths and brush their teeth under the instruction and superintendence of the teacher. Handkerchief drill is next taken so as to facilitate nasal breathing in the subsequent 'rest' time.

For the 'rest,' all children lie down on beds or deck-chairs in summer for two hours, in winter for an hour and a half. The 'rest' is, of course, in the open air. In inclement weather it is taken in the 'rest' sheds, which are open on three sides. Each child wraps up in rugs, and as the obligatory silence and quiet of the immediate neighbourhood are conducive to complete rest, the majority of the children soon go off to sleep. The teachers are convinced that ordinarily

children do not get the requisite amount of sleep and that the 'rest' in the open air contributes very largely to their speedy recovery of tone.

Medical.

The medical officer visits the school weekly to examine the children. The teacher is present at the doctor's examination, and makes notes of the doctor's remarks as to the child's condition and of any suggestions as to special treatment. In addition to keeping notes of the medical report, the teacher records the periodic weighings of the child, and is instructed to draw the medical officer's attention to any case where the record is not satisfactory.

Some of the children are prescribed cod-liver oil and malt. About sixty children assemble on the 'malt and oil parade' each morning.

Remedial Exercises.

A specialist in remedial exercises is occupied full time in treating scoliosis and allied defects. She also gives special breathing exercises to children having flat or undeveloped chests. One room is specially fitted with gymnastic apparatus for remedial work.

VI

A VOCATIONAL SCHOOL: GRAVESEND SEA SCHOOL

Adapted from the Annual Report of the School

IN the autumn of 1918, the maintenance of the supply of mercantile seamen presented a very pressing problem. The absorption of large numbers for naval and military requirements, together with the necessary exclusion of hostile aliens, had created an extreme shortage of men for the merchant service.

With a view to devising means for meeting the situation, the Board of Trade and the Ministry of Shipping took into consultation the Shipping Federation and the National Sailors' and Firemen's Union. A conference was held between representatives of these departments and organisations, as the result of which there was prepared a scheme of intensive training for deck and engine-room hands under which the number available for service would be increased in the shortest possible time compatible with their efficiency. This scheme was approved by the Shipping Controller, and the funds for maintaining it in operation were provided by the Ministry of Shipping. An Organisation Committee was appointed for the organisation and immediate direction of the scheme, and has met regularly for this purpose.

The fundamental feature of the scheme is to enrol well-grown youths of good stamina, considerably beyond the age when beginners usually commence training for the merchant service, and to subject them to a stringent course of training of from two to three months' duration, thus giving them approximately the same amount of practical nautical instruction as they would have received had they commenced at an earlier age a two-years' course of mixed nautical and general instruction at a training institution. In the selection of these youths one consideration only is borne in mind, that of their fitness for service in the mercantile marine. The suitability of the mercantile marine as a reformatory agency for boys of indifferent character or as a means of developing boys of poor physique has not been allowed to enter into the Committee's calculations. The Committee felt it their duty to secure to the nation the best material for the mercantile marine in return for the expenditure of public funds. The Committee were fortunate in obtaining shore premises suitable for the Sea School at Gravesend, and in three weeks from its inception the scheme was in full operation. The training ship *Stork*, at Hammersmith, was also acquired for a limited period, and transferred to Gravesend as an auxiliary to the shore establishment. The necessary work of dismantling and re-rigging that vessel provided a unique opportunity to make a practical start in the training of the first youths to be enrolled.

The Gravesend School was opened on the 23rd September 1918. The training comprises knotting, splicing, boat handling, rowing, swimming, heaving the lead, knowledge of the compass, steering, signalling, cleaning brass, bright work,

and paint work, scrubbing, painting, preparing and serving the mess, and other practical duties on board ship.

The training is directed to rendering the youths efficient units for employment in the merchant service, and the curriculum has been devised solely with this end in view. The following is the standard of age and physical dimensions which candidates are required to satisfy :—

Age.	Chest Measurement.	Height.
Over 16	32½ inches.	5 feet 3½ inches.
Over 17	33½ inches.	5 feet 4½ inches.
Over 18	34 inches.	5 feet 5½ inches.

Youths of exceptional development are sometimes taken below the age of sixteen, and occasionally youths are taken above the maximum age where they appear likely to become suitable for service in the stokehold. The average age of the youths enrolled is 16 years 10 months, the average height 5 feet 6½ inches, and chest measurement 33·8 inches. A strict investigation is made of candidates' credentials, which must include satisfactory testimonials as to character from responsible persons such as schoolmasters, clergymen, or late employers, and a medical certificate of fitness for a seaman's life. The majority of the youths are desirous of becoming sailors, and these are required to pass the Board of Trade eyesight test for form and colour vision before being accepted as selected applicants. Some of the elder pupils, however, elect to become stokehold hands, and for these a special course of instruction has been devised. Admission to the school is in strict priority of registration. As illustrating the care which is taken in the choice of candidates, it may be stated that only some

15 per cent. of the applicants are accepted. The result is that the selected pupils are fine, stalwart lads with keen enthusiasm for their work. In the case of any who during the early period of the training show a lack of keenness or adaptability, training is discontinued.

Shipowners have lent some fine ship models, which afford excellent facilities for enabling the lads to become instructed in the different parts and equipment of ships, and tend to economise the time and labour of the captain and instructors. Steering is taught in the first instance by Professor Thomas's moving stand in the shore premises, the training being completed in the Board of Trade tender *Mantis*, by practical instruction under the master and mate of that vessel. Possibly no better opportunity for the production of smart helmsmen could be found than the manœuvring of a vessel upon the crowded tidal waters of the Thames in the vicinity of Gravesend.

The training of trimmers is carried out under the stoking instructor at the Gravesend Gasworks, where the youths handle coke and coal in top-heavy barrows, the balancing of which teaches them how to handle barrows on board ship ; they are also taught to clean fires and stoke, and some of them board the *Mantis* daily for instruction by the engineer in raising and keeping steam and banking fires.

The catering receives special attention, and a good wholesome and appetising dietary is supplied, with a due regard to the strenuous character of the training which is undergone, the Committee realising to what a great extent contentment and close application to work are dependent upon a proper appreciation of the importance of this aspect of the matter. Pupils on leaving the school to

take up service at sea are furnished with all the articles of kit necessary to complete their outfit at cost price, the amount being repaid out of their advance notes where these are sufficient in value for the purpose. Where the advance note falls short, the balance is paid directly by the lad; so far the loss under this head has been negligible. As it was found that some of the pupils had been employed on shore as club waiters, assistant cooks, assistant butchers and bakers, and as these lads appeared to be specially adapted for filling the positions of cooks and stewards, the Committee, after the school had been open for six months, decided upon establishing a course of training for those desirous of service in those capacities. Since then there have been sent to sea sixty assistant stewards and twenty assistant cooks, and all who have returned have been reported on favourably.

The school is supplied with an excellent library including interesting works on travel and adventure and healthy light reading, also handbooks and manuals on navigation and seamanship. Provision is made for reading, writing and games after the evening meal, and rowing and other contests are arranged and much appreciated as a means of combining amusement with instruction. Boat communication between the school ashore and the floating school is continuous, but the busy and congested state of the river in the Gravesend Reach does not lend itself to successful rowing competitions. During the winter and spring there are a number of excellent football matches. Boxing is also a sport which is encouraged amongst the lads, and some very creditable competitions have been fought with the gloves.

A religious service is held in the school on Sunday mornings. The *Stork* had to be returned to the Navy League in June 1919, and was replaced by H.M. Survey Steamer *Triton*, kindly transferred to the Committee by the Admiralty. The work of dismantling the *Stork* at Gravesend and again re-rigging her at Hammersmith was carried out most efficiently by a crew of lads from the school under two instructors.

The Committee have been greatly gratified by the reports which have been received concerning the lads who have passed out of the school. A regular system of welfare supervision and report has been arranged, under which every vessel carrying a Gravesend Sea School boy is visited on her return to this country by the local Port Consultants of the National Maritime Board, who are prepared to render the lads all the service and assistance of which they may stand in need. It is found that this feature of the scheme is greatly appreciated by officers and lads alike.

Doubt is sometimes expressed as to the possibility of turning out an efficient sailor after so short a training. Having regard to the requirements of modern merchant steamers (as compared with sailing ships), the Committee are quite satisfied that 'safe' and efficient beginners in the mercantile marine, qualified to take their part in the routine duties of their vessel from the day of joining, and with the requisite skill in boat hauling to render them useful rather than a danger in the event of an emergency necessitating recourse to the boats, can be made in the time indicated, given suitable premises and facilities for training, efficient instructors and pupils of mature age and good physique, whose natural ability is stimulated by their enthusiasm

for the sea. They are able to state that twelve months' experience of the working of the Gravesend Sea School has in every way justified their anticipations.

As a result of the first twelve months' training (which means ten months' output of trained youths) there have been shipped from this school 802 youths on a variety of vessels, ranging from the finest mail steamers to coasting colliers. The reports from the captains and officers of these vessels have been most encouraging and testify to the efficiency of the training, special mention being made of the fact that the lads are good helmsmen. Several of the leading lines are showing great interest in the scheme, and it is hoped that an increasing number of vessels will take these trained youths on board.

The Sea School has been visited by sea experts from time to time. All have spoken very highly of the general organisation, the orderliness and method which obtain at the school and ship, and the alertness and enthusiasm of the boys.

VI

A WORKS CONTINUATION SCHOOL: PORT SUNLIGHT

Extracted by permission from an address given to the Joint Industrial Council of the Soap and Candle Trades at Birmingham, Tuesday, 16th March 1920, by J. Knox, M.A.

URING the summer of 1919 the Education Committee of Messrs. Lever Brothers, Limited, decided to extend the facilities of the Staff Training College, which had been previously confined to the junior clerks in the General Offices and to apprentices in the skilled trades, to some of the unskilled workers (between 14 and 16 years of age) in the factory. About one thousand notices were distributed amongst the young employees, explaining the offer and inviting those who wished to avail themselves of the opportunity to make application through their various managers. About 40 per cent. of the people eligible applied, and an examination was held on the lines of a psychological test of intelligence, so as to choose from amongst the applicants those who could be accommodated at the time. One interesting result of the experiment was that, generally speaking, the further the child was from the date of leaving the school the more illiterate he had become in reading, writing, arithmetic, and all

the subjects which might be summed up as school knowledge. Many of them had quite forgotten their multiplication table, so that they were unable to check a simple grocer's or draper's bill; and if a paragraph of a newspaper were at all strange they had great difficulty in reading it intelligently, and many seemed to be unable to write down in a few grammatical and consecutive sentences what it was all about.

At Port Sunlight the education policy of the Company is in the hands of a committee composed of Directors and Deputy Directors. The details of the teaching, subjects, curriculum, etc., are largely in the hands of four College Boards, namely, the Office Board, Apprentice Board, the Factory Students' Board, and the Adult Evening Classes Board. Half of the members of these Boards are managers or heads of departments appointed by the Company, the other half are popularly elected by ballot by the General Office Staff and by the factory employees respectively. Between the Committee of Directors and the College Board there is another committee which deals with the general management of the College Classes and with the arrangements of the hours of study and the smooth working generally of the scheme as between the business and the Staff Training College. By means of these committees are obtained the interest and support of not only the Directors of the Company but also of the managers and general staff of employees, so that the Staff Training College is felt to be an integral part of the business.

Written examinations are held twice a year, and a report of the results in every subject is sent to the various managers of the departments in which the students work, and also to their parents.

The managers are expected to see all the students in their departments and to speak with them on their examination results, and before they send their copies of the reports to the Secretary's department to be filed away for reference, they are expected to write their own report on the back of the college one as to the work of the student in the office or the factory. Twice a year, therefore, the work of every student is carefully considered, and as these reports accumulate they become a kind of 'proficiency chart,' a definite indication as to what kind of employee the student actually is, so that advances and appointments can be made in the light of the facts of the case, and young employees feel that their future is almost entirely in their own hands and will be in accordance with the records they have made in the business and at the college. The college discovers talent which may never come to the surface along the lines of much of the employment transacted by juniors, and it becomes much easier to place young people in situations and departments where they are most likely to do their best work. As a further inducement to students to do well in their college classes the Company instituted a system of awards for distinctions in the term examinations, namely sixpence per week for each distinction gained, so that it becomes possible at the end of four years for students to be earning four or five shillings over and above their ordinary pay.

The Company was fortunate enough to have a convenient building quite close to the office which, as it had been originally built for a day school, was easily adapted to suit the college. When it was opened, the classes were only for juniors in the General Offices, and for apprentices to skilled

trades from 14 to 18 years of age. It was found that there were about 300 junior clerks eligible, and in order that the offices might not be deprived of all their juniors at the same time the classes were arranged into two fairly equal divisions. One half go on Monday morning from 8.30 to 10, and also on Wednesday afternoon, 4.15 to 7, while the other half go on Tuesday morning and Thursday afternoon at the same hours, with no deductions from wages. By this arrangement the students attend classes during hours that are about half in the firm's time and about half in their own time. Tea is provided by the Company for all afternoon students from 3.45 to 4.15, so that there is very little hardship in any student having to wait till seven o'clock one night a week, as compared with the old system of continuation classes which young people had to attend in the evenings on two or three nights a week. It will readily be noticed that the amount of time given at present by the Company for the education of junior employees is considerably short of what will be expected of them when the Fisher Act comes in force, but it should be borne in mind that this scheme includes all young persons up to 18 years of age, whereas the Fisher Act, in the meantime, only affects those between 14 and 16, and that it was started nearly two years before the Act was passed, and the experience gained will be of the greatest value when the time comes to extend the scheme. Indeed, so much is this the case that Education Authorities are constantly inquiring for the particulars of the scheme and for any hints that can be given as a result of the experiment.

The original 300 students were also divided into two sections according to their ages. The first section consisted of boys and girls 14 to 16

years of age and the second section of those 16 to 18 years of age. As the boys and girls all worked together in the General Offices, the education classes have usually been what are known as co-educational, that is, as a rule the boys and girls sit in the same classes and do exactly the same work. There is, however, a distinct line of cleavage between the kind of education usually given to the junior students and that usually given to the seniors. While the seniors receive chiefly a vocational education, the juniors receive a general education, for it is recognised by business people who take a wide view that, as a rule, if a person is to go far in any department of life he must have a fairly wide foundation of general culture. The curriculum, therefore, for junior students consists of English (literature and composition) and arithmetic, and in addition, for the boys, industrial history and physical training, and for the girls some instruction in shorthand and morris-dancing. The curriculum for the senior students consists of English literature, science, book-keeping, shorthand, and commercial correspondence, and, for the girls only, hygiene, needlework, and morris-dancing. Several things have become almost axiomatic during the last three years.

I. A continuation scheme of education, to be successful, must be altogether on different lines from elementary education. A new conception of education is wanted, a larger, wider conception, something quite different from the old disciplinary type in which classics and mathematics were so determinative and eliminated all who did not have a capacity for dealing with the abstract. This new conception is one which will offer equal opportunities for all for the develop-

ment of such native capacity for leadership as they may possess, regardless of any fixed curriculum or social status.

II. The young persons, as they are called in the Act, must feel that they are not being sent back to school and that they are not to be subjected to anything like elementary school discipline. They are all wage-earners, and this fact usually gives them a freer standing in their homes, and this freer standing must also be given them in their educational classes.

III. The morning is easily the best time for education classes, for it is not only the best time for learning, but it is also the time of the day when they can most readily be spared from business, for as a rule it takes some time in the morning before an office can get going, and usually the students who arrive in the office at 10 o'clock feel the push of a good deal to do, and it is seldom that they cannot do as much between 10 o'clock and 5 as they do on other days between 8.30 and 5. At any rate, it is quite remarkable that as much work seems to be done during each of the forty weeks in which they spend two and a half hours of the firm's time in the Staff Training College as during each of the twelve weeks when they have holidays from the college and spend their full time at business. In some classes of work the withdrawal of young employees from production for seven or eight hours a week must diminish the total output, still it is the universal testimony of American and British employers who have instituted school classes in factory time, that the amount is only a negligible and vanishing quantity, and the compensations in other directions easily make up for it and wipe it out.

IV. Lecture classes are not a great success;

more real work is done when the students are neither listening to a lecture nor listening to some one else reading, but are pursuing some line of work or research in which they are personally interested. A scheme of education must be found whereby less and less instruction will be given by the teacher, and more and more will be left to the workaday interests of the students, to their own initiative and to the lines of study which they feel they ought to follow to achieve their personal ambitions. A hard and fast curriculum and a hard and fast time-table will be the death of Continuation Schools. Many of these young persons have much dreary routine work during the week, and change and variety must be of the very essence of continued education, and they must feel at the same time that their education is not something which will tend to pin them down to one type of work or to any one business, but that it is opening a door of world-wide opportunity, and putting in their hands an instrument that will help them wherever and at whatever they may ultimately work. It has, therefore, been the policy of the Company to give all its educational facilities not only free of charge, but also free of any obligation to remain with the Company after their schooling is finished; for it is felt that young people must not only be given the power to get on, which comes through education, but that they must also be free to choose and live their own lives.

In regard to the apprentices to skilled trades, of whom there are about 100, they began with classes on Friday afternoons from 4 to 7 o'clock, but that was soon altered; and now, instead of going to work on Saturday mornings, they all go to the college for four hours entirely in the

Company's time, without deduction from wages, for special tuition classes. Nearly all the apprentices attend evening classes provided by the Education Authorities two or three nights a week. They have, therefore, a very hard week's work and cannot have either the time or the facilities for much home study, and the idea of the Saturday morning classes is to give them tuition to help them with their evening class work; the teachers who take the classes are either university graduates or highly skilled men in their own departments from the Company's staff.

These apprentice classes are just about the best work done so far, for though the managers find their work considerably dislocated on Saturday mornings, they all admit that their apprentices are now much more intelligently interested in their trade than they were before the classes were instituted, and as many of these lads receive the highest distinctions in their evening class examinations, the purely educational benefit cannot be mistaken. The Apprentice Board advises the Principal of the college in the same way as the Office Board does for the junior clerks as to the fitting in of their daily work with their Education classes, while the Principal of the college sees that their Saturday classes fit in with their evening school subjects.

A committee of the apprentices themselves is in constant touch with the Principal and the teachers as to the conduct of the classes, athletic club, social evenings, etc., and there is no doubt but what the apprentices now receive a splendid chance of becoming highly skilled and intelligent tradesmen, for they not only learn the craftsmanship of their job in the works, but they also

learn its science at the school, and through their committees they receive training and experience in responsible government and citizenship and in working together for a common end.

The education of what is known as unskilled workers is a much more difficult problem, because the day's work of a junior clerk or of an apprentice to a skilled trade is what is known as intellectually 'energising,' while the day's work of a young person at an unskilled job is intellectually 'enervating'—that is to say, the work of the one quickens and enlarges the intelligence, but the work of the other, who is probably on some repetitive job, dulls and diminishes the intelligence; so that while the education of the former may be quite properly what is known as vocational, the education of the latter, who cannot possibly be said to have a vocation at all, cannot be along the lines of his work. To illustrate: it is quite easy to see how an apprentice chemist or engineer should receive teaching in chemistry, physics, mechanics, pure and applied mathematics, etc., but it is impossible to see how a lad, whose work is to shape tin lids from a sheet by machinery all day long, can receive an education along the lines of his job. The unskilled worker must be provided with a scheme of education on different lines altogether.

It has already been indicated that educational classes are provided for about 250 of the unskilled junior employees, 200 of whom are girls, while the remaining 50 are boys. These are divided into four sections of about 60, each section coming to the college four hours a week, entirely in the Company's time and without deduction from wages. The teachers of these classes are professional teachers employed by the Company,

who give their whole time to the Staff Training College. The morning or the afternoon, as the case may be, is divided into five periods, one of which is for physical training and one of which, for the girls, is at present for music; the remaining periods are for educational classes in English, arithmetic, etc. It is not necessary to go into the details of the ordinary educational subjects. The important and difficult point is the specific method by which it is endeavoured to overcome the enervating elements of the daily work. It is, of course, easier to overcome this with the girls than with the boys, since most of the girls may reasonably look forward to what after all is one of the highest vocations, namely, the vocation of the home. In the case of the girls, therefore, there is included in the curriculum not only music, but also the various subjects included in domestic economy, housecraft, etc.

Before speaking more particularly of the curriculum of the boys, it is necessary first to take a look at the youngster who comes into the factory, office, or shop at fourteen years of age, for he is to be the subject of the educational experiment, he is to become the industrial workman and the intelligent citizen. He represents about 85 per cent. of the youth of England, for it is only a small proportion who continue at secondary schools. The probability is that if he is above average ability he rebels against school, because he is of an active nature and desires to handle and make things: because, in short, he wants to be doing something; or if he has only average ability, or perhaps even less than average, he has probably been sent to work not only to add to the domestic resources, but also because his parents do not think that further schooling is of

any use. and because the boy himself is 'fed up' with trying to learn by reading, listening and memorising.

Clearly, then, he must be regarded not as a receptacle for information but as an instrument that makes things, and the idea behind his continued education must not be the process of 'filling a Gladstone bag for a journey, but rather the equipping of a workshop with tools.' There is no inherent need for sorrow and grief for any such boy going to work at fourteen. On the contrary, no sight is more pathetic than that of an otherwise good lad drifting into habits of idleness, intellectual listlessness and indifference by continuance at a school where the education is largely literary, bookish and unattractive to his disposition; whereas no sight is so full of hope as the sight of a boy who is straining after a full and energetic manhood because his outlook is one of activity, self-expression, and adventure.

It is not early work that is necessarily discouraging; indeed, it may become a help to a boy if it is wisely used in the scheme of his continued education; and, therefore, practical education must be the fundamental condition so that theoretical education may have a chance of success. 'In dealing with the education of the unskilled boy worker, I' (says Mr. Knox) 'would not begin with books and pen and ink, but with tools, compasses, and pencil; not with learning, but with doing and making something; that is to say, with a hobby and his hands, rather than with a book or a lecture.

'My idea for such youths is that a large departmental work-room should be fitted up for them where there will be workers in iron and wood, and where a boy will learn how to weigh and

measure quantities and fit one thing to another. A thorough practical knowledge of weights and measures, and a steady power of accurate use of weighing and measuring instruments will always impart as thorough a mastery of arithmetic as will carry him handsomely through life; and moreover, as scientists have pointed out, the acquisition of this knowledge and mastery will have had a strong reflex influence on the youth's character, giving mental and moral balance, care, patience, the feeling and nice desire for accurate statement of fact, power to weigh arguments and draw fair and just inferences. With this common idea of just weight and accurate measurement in every department of the Hobby School constantly in view, I would equip it with the scrap which is thrown away in every factory which handles raw materials, and I would get the boys to turn it into things useful or ornamental, which could either be sold for funds for the further equipment of the school, or could be kept by the scholars themselves.

'Why, for example, should not boys—and girls too, for that matter—be taught how to mend boots, how to work in wood and iron and how to tend a garden? From fourteen to sixteen I would let the boys choose their own hobby on the Montessori system, and I would let them alone with it occasionally. Everybody wants at times to be let alone, and no one more than the boy who has to follow a machine throughout his working day. Handwork to the great majority of children brings, more than anything else that they are set to do, an opportunity of creative and constructive effort which makes direct appeal to their interests and gives free scope for their individuality and also a means of self correction; for

here an error or carelessness is speedily shown up, not by word of the teacher but by visible proof. We are said to be essentially a practical people, and it is amazing that in our schemes of education we do not give a far larger place to the kind of work that is most in accord with this habit of mind, and that gives exactly the training to which in other things we rightly attach the greatest value. In the Hobby School too there should be a library, writing and art departments, magazines and newspapers. It would be a great mistake to think that all boys are keen on science and handwork, for there are many to whom literature, art, philosophy, and history appeal far more. The key to successful continued education lies in real interest and self-expression, and the salvation of democracy from dull, tame, lifeless mediocrity lies in the cultivation of vital personal power. Every means should be used: Dramatic and Debating Clubs, Musical Societies, games, etc., are all excellent channels whereby young people may find themselves and enter a wider world than seems possible from the standpoint of a repetitive job. As long as distinctively vocational training or teaching through hobbies is not allowed to become too dominant, exclusive, absorbing, as long as the specialising tendency does not enter too soon or demand sole sway, as long as the trade and wealth of to-morrow do not rob to-day of its present joy, nor the past of its rich and refining treasures, so long will it help and guide, strengthen and promote the best practical ends and highest purposes of education.

'We have not yet got our hobby schemes at Port Sunlight in operation, but plans are maturing for fitting up small engineering, electrical and

woodwork laboratories, and if the experiment is successful they can be extended as required. The laboratories are not intended to teach any boy a trade—that he must learn in the factory; but they will be a big asset in the unskilled boy's education and a source of pure joy in his life, and it can easily be seen that they can be made of the highest utility for illustrating the scientific principles that underlie much of the rule-of-thumb shop work learned by apprentices to skilled trades. What we want our youth to acquire is wide general intelligence, so that they will be quick to understand a new job or a new machine, expert in the scientific laws of mechanics, physics, etc., so that they will see the inherent connection of things and be alive to the possibilities of quick changes and new developments.

'It has been found that as soon as a systematic scheme of education for junior employees is taken up, the ambitious workmen and foremen or forewomen begin to ask themselves where they are going to be when these young people are working for them and when probably the young know much more than their elders. And so gradually there comes up the desire for special classes for adult workers.'

VIII

CLASS TEACHING THROUGH PARTNERSHIP

By H. MIDDLETON

KING EDWARD VI. School, Stratford-on-Avon, was the scene of this attempt to introduce a system of working in partnership into the class-room.

Forsaking the old method whereby every child does exactly the same work as his neighbour, Mr. MacMunn (now in charge of a community of war orphans at Tiptree Hall, Essex) devised a scheme under which no boy beyond Forms I. and II. was ever engaged in the same work as his companions.

The aim of this scheme was sixfold: (1) To increase (especially in modern languages) the actual time during which each boy was expressing himself on the lines of his subject; (2) To enlarge the visible scope of the work; (3) To encourage the laggard by showing him an obvious sphere of usefulness through his being able to teach even the cleverest of his class-fellows; (4) To promote that combination of individual with collective activity which should be considered a physiological, as well as a psychological need, always to be supplied in the absence of countervailing necessities of practical administration; (5) To arouse the spirit of independence, and to encour-

age originality; (6) To suit class teaching to the varying needs and capacities of the individual.

The method used to attain these ends was one of partnerships between the boys.

The first subject to be experimented on was French, as it was in this subject that the need for a change of method was most felt. Under the old methods, in a class of twenty, each boy spoke French for about one minute and a half in an hour; calculating four periods of French in a week, this yielded a total of six minutes per boy per week or one hour and a quarter in three months. It was mainly to correct this wastage of time that the new system was devised.

As a preliminary to the partnership system a novel idea for the teaching of French verbs was introduced with great success. 'One boy who had learned "être" would sit beside a boy called "venir" from whom "avoir" would be widely separated. If "avoir" had his say when I asked, looking into space, for the French for "I have come," I would instruct "être" to show the liveliest resentment at the theft.' This distribution of verbs (followed by divisions of tenses on the same principle), simple as it was, had the effect of arousing great interest and foretold well enough the remarkable enthusiasm which followed the introduction of a far more highly organised system of work in partnership.

The next development was the institution of a book for each boy, partly in writing and partly cuttings from books or newspapers.

The book worked outwards from the boy himself. It began with personal details in French about the owner of the book, all in the first person singular and based on notes in English which each boy was asked to write down for the purpose,

touching his favourite subjects of work, his recreations and other data. Thus he was supplied with French expressions which corresponded with his own innermost thoughts and given readings in French which reflected his own special interests. It was not difficult to find readings about butterflies for the boy who collected them, about locomotives for another who was interested in engineering, or about postage stamps for those who were philatelists. At the same time each lesson contained plenty of old-fashioned material, such as grammar drill, syntactical examples, and proses (with key for the 'partner'), the only new element on this side of the work being the fact that no two boys' books were alike.

The boys elected 'editors' who kept their teacher supplied with news about their comrades, to be duly introduced into their class conversations. Instead of dull, lifeless sentences about remote events and unknown people, there were talks about themselves, about where they had spent their holidays, about some comical adventure of one of their number. From the moment the individual conversation book was introduced there was no longer a doubt that the boys regarded teaching in partnership as a very pleasant kind of game. And although, owing to the formidable labour it involved, it became necessary to replace these special books by interchangeable sections of manuscript class-dialogues, there was no sort of diminution of the interest.

The first lessons in conversational French were given to boys of an average age of twelve, and the work done by these boys was not so completely individual as in the case of senior students. Half the boys were labelled 'odds' and the others 'evens' and partnerships were formed between

them. The 'odds' were provided with one set of manuscript conversation books and the 'evens' with another. The boys usually took two forty-five minute periods to master each lesson, which was, of course, read over and fully explained by the teacher before the work began. The work in partnership was conducted on the lines of question and answer; the boys, having learned about half of their respective lessons, exchanged books and questioned each other.

The lessons in the books were so arranged that errors were almost impossible.

Under this system each boy was actually speaking French for at least half the lesson and was receiving individual attention; the rest of the lesson was devoted to correcting mistakes in pronunciation.

Every teacher of foreign languages is confronted with one special difficulty, that of inducing boys, by any really natural process, to ask questions as well as to answer them. The 'partners' in this scheme have to ask and answer questions alternately and the problem is solved.

The difficulty of inequality of degrees of proficiency vanishes with no less remarkable rapidity. The stupid or otherwise backward boy finds, that through having done different work from that of his more intelligent 'partner,' he is capable of instructing him on many points; and having questions and answers before him, he is not only mechanically perfect, but is able often to explain difficulties that the cleverer boy finds real stumbling blocks.

French readers are also largely used. These include fairy stories, illustrated scientific text-books, newspapers, magazines, and many stories with translations for the use of the 'partner.'

Among other interesting devices used by Mr. MacMunn for the middle forms of his school in connection with the teaching of French, was a collection of boxes, each enamelled in seven different colours. With each box were two books, one for each partner. One book asked and answered questions about the outside of the box and the other dealt with its contents. The use of these books taught French phrases and words; they were entirely in French, with the exception of certain directions written in English for the use of the 'partner.'

The same idea has been developed in connection with the teaching of English. Reading aloud is carried out in groups of four, while work connected with notes on the text is done in partnerships of two by mutual questioning. In this subject also the boy spends far more time in actual speaking than he did under the old method, and is therefore gaining in vocabulary, fluency, and style. The importance of essay writing is emphasised as resulting in an increasing ease in self-expression, a widening of individual interests and a growth of general knowledge, especially when an hour is devoted to the reading aloud of the whole of the work.

Mr. MacMunn created a fascinating game in connection with word-study lessons. The boys, working in partnerships, set one another certain given sentences in which a word is missing; the boys have to supply these words.

The recreative reading of the boys was made as wide and diverse as possible and certain periods were set apart for individual 'silent' reading.

The study of special texts was certainly much more thorough under the new system. If a play of Shakespeare had to be studied, the boys (once

they had read the whole play through) could specialise in particular acts. 'Act I.' could then sit beside 'Act II.' and questions on contexts and meanings could be rapidly exchanged. This had the advantage not only of giving thorough drill on matters of knowledge but of developing enormously a boy's powers of definition and explanation.

For general-knowledge lessons use was made of *The Parent's Book* and a one-volume encyclopædia. Both of these were cut into sections, so that every boy had a different section to study and could give and receive information on different topics with his partner.

Mr. MacMunn says: The master who undertakes to adapt this system of teaching to history will soon find a veritable embarrassment of choice in the material he may give his boys for differential work. Sometimes he will cover the whole of English history in one lesson for the purpose, for example, of tracing the development of some special institution, using each boy to tell briefly the story of his particular reign. Another time he will study a reign so to say 'intensively,' different boys taking cuttings from different historians, certain boys even being given perhaps historical novels in order to put colour into the general work.

Geography assumes a new brightness and interest under this method. Map-reading lends itself easily to the partnership system, and by letting each boy specialise in travel literature in conjunction with the more mechanical part of geography, a new enthusiasm is imparted to the study of this subject.

In certain branches of mathematics, also, the scheme has been found most successful, namely, in mental arithmetic and in algebraic and geometric problems.

Turning to the disciplinary side of this system,

it is claimed that the boys are so interested and enthusiastic that punishments are seldom found necessary and the chief difficulty experienced has been to prevent overwork. The amount of work got through by each class is greatly increased and is also more thorough.

'It seems to me that if my system were generally adopted the problem would be to guard against overwork, rather than a deficiency of accomplishment. The solution would then be a shortening of school hours to, say, three hours of partnership work per day, plus one hour of individual preparation. I am convinced that this would be ample enough. In winter there might be a short afternoon concert to close the day or a debate or a meeting of a scientific society, the bringing of these into the regular curriculum of the school serving further to bridge the gulf, already much narrowed, between work and play. In fact, I think that debates should be much more frequent and that boys should be systematically trained to take part in them with good effect. They could be held twice a week and pass gradually from informal chats to more dignified discussions on topics of the day. In summer the boys might engage in games or nature study from two till four, and then come in for their one hour of individual preparation.'

Each class under this system is self-governing. A disciplinary committee of about six boys is chosen by the vote of the boys themselves, and this committee deals with 'slackers.' The teacher does not even take the chair at the meetings of the committee but is regarded simply as an 'adviser' or 'consulting expert.'

One of the greatest drawbacks to the scheme is the enormous amount of extra work that it entails

for the teacher. The preparation of the various sections of books needed for every subject is a heavy task, but these, under an elastic curriculum, could be made by the boys themselves as part of their handwork scheme. Another disadvantage which may dismay a teacher used to the 'dead silence' of the schoolroom which prevailed under the old system, is the fact that there is a constant hum of activity under the new conditions. Its originator likens it to 'the noise of a perfectly running, if rather powerful machine,' but he claims that the results obtained under his scheme would quickly remove this prejudice in the mind of a progressive enthusiastic teacher.

'Going back to the sixfold aim with which, as I have said, I embarked on this scheme of teaching through partnerships I have found (1) that my boys speak, on the average, some twenty times as much French as under the old method and that, in English periods, they increase correspondingly their freedom and firmness in the handling of their own tongue; (2) that the whole of their subject is constantly present to their imagination; (3) that the laggard has developed out of all knowledge; (4) that activity is incessant; (5) that the boy grows every day both in independence and originality; and (6) that I can now, for the first time, supply work graded and adapted to every individual need.'

IX

A CO-OPERATIVE STUDENT CLASS: ABBOTS LANGLEY

Adapted from the report of a lecture by J. W. Wells to the New Ideals Conference, 1918, by O. M. Andrews

BBOTS LANGLEY is a rural school in three departments: (1) Infants, (2) Girls 8 to 14 years of age, and (3) Boys 8 to 14 years of age. The average attendance in each of the two senior departments is approximately 125; the scholars are grouped in three divisions (juniors, intermediates, and seniors), and the head teacher in each department has sole charge of the senior groups (Standards V.-VII.). The children, on the whole, are of good average type, a fair percentage being drawn from homes where education is a matter of importance, and where the work of the school is considerably facilitated by the co-operation of interested parents.

The scheme of study for a student class was drawn up conjointly by the heads of the two senior departments, the work being done separately in each school by Standards VI. and VII. and the girls and boys meeting weekly for discussion or debate on what they had done. This was continued with various modifications and developments for some time. The results, as compared with those ob-

tained by the previous oral method, were encouraging.

As each head teacher had charge, not only of a senior student section but also of a lower section of the senior class, it was decided to combine the two student sections (boys and girls) and so form one student class for the two departments, while the two lower sections were combined into a preparatory class. This proved to be a great advance on the previous arrangement, while later, the sectionising of the student class further enhanced the value of the scheme and the scope and effectiveness of the work done.

The present arrangement is such that all the children in the senior divisions (Standards V.-VII.), in both departments, come directly within the scope of the student class scheme. The children are specially classified for the work. The lower divisions of boys and girls (aged 9 to 12) form the preparatory student class under the head mistress of the girls' department, and the work consists of the gradual merging of the oral into the study method. As occasion requires promotions are made to the student class proper.

The main class is divided into beginners (ages 10 to 14), an intermediate section of particularly promising pupils (ages 10 to 14), and a small advanced section composed of those who have spent a year in the class (ages 13 to 14). As compared with the early stage of the experiment, when a separate student section was run in each department, the present arrangement has many advantages. The teacher in charge of each division can give undivided attention to the development and extension of one branch of the work only, the children can be better classified with respect to mental capacity and development, while the good

effect of the co-operation of the boys and girls in study and discussion, with their opposite points of view, and with the spirit of emulation well in evidence, needs no emphasising to those experienced in the teaching of upper mixed classes. Undoubtedly, the effort of the class as a whole is considerably intensified and the mental horizon appreciably broadened.

No minimum age limit is set, as it is thought to the advantage of the scholars, provided they give evidence of a capacity to make good use of the opportunity, to spend as extended a period as possible in this class, while the aim is to give every child at least a year in the student class proper. Many of the children pass on to the secondary schools by means of scholarships.

Though the study method is brought to bear, wherever thought advisable, on any of the subjects in the curriculum, those which come fully into its scope and in which the two departments fully co-operate are history, geography, reading, and literature.

The procedure has passed through various stages of development, and may be briefly explained under the following heads :—

1. Study with notes and record work.
2. Discussion and debate.
3. Dramatising.
4. Supplementary work.
5. Home and recreative work.
6. Tests.

In describing the procedure, history has been chosen as probably the best subject to illustrate the points dealt with.

The choice of a suitable text-book from which the pupils in an elementary school can study with

advantage is not without difficulty. The book should be more than a mere reader, and yet not be too advanced or technical in its language, for too frequent reference to the dictionary tends to distract the mind from the consideration of the subject in hand. The book should be such as to extend the child mentally, should be thought-producing and suggestive, and should lead up to and make necessary the taking of notes and the consultation of works in the reference library. Each child is provided with a dictionary—of simple type and not overburdened with words of a technical nature or of very infrequent use, while a more comprehensive work is included in the reference library, to which all pupils have access.

1. STUDY

In the earlier stages a definite amount of work is arranged for a given time. The teacher reads the part to be studied, notes points that will probably need special explanation and where the dictionary will give little or no help, and draws up an outline of work which is placed on the class notice board. This plan indicates the sections into which the work can be divided, and is at first fairly full, while later the minor headings are omitted, as the class will have become better able to classify the contents and to distinguish the points of importance.

The aim is to use for the children's own good the activity of life that is in them, to teach them that they can develop themselves, and to give them the will to do so when they leave school.

Provided with the outline of work, and with text-book, dictionary, and note-book, the pupil makes an effort to secure knowledge for himself. When

possible, note-books are provided which will contain the notes, maps, etc., of the work for a whole year. These are given to the pupils on leaving school, as they contain lists of books for reading in later years, and in that way act as a stimulus to the extension of study after the formal school-days are over. Emphasis is laid on the reasons for note-taking, namely, to fix knowledge, to train in systematising it, and to form an easy method of revision. First attempts at note-taking are frequently too long and wordy; to remedy this, in the earlier stages, the teacher and the class together read the chapter, analyse its contents as to salient points, discuss order, etc., and then draw up notes. The note-books include maps, illustrative sketches, sources of reference. The advanced students also keep a summary note-book, into which, at convenient periods, a summary is made from the fuller note-book.

While every endeavour is made to train the children to help themselves, it is found necessary before most study times to have a short preliminary talk, either on the previous work or on some point in the work to be done which is obscure or requires special explanation. Some parts of the study, too, which are only cursorily given by the text-book may need to be amplified by the teacher.

While the study is proceeding, the teacher examines note-books and questions and directs individuals, especially the weaker students.

Reference is a most important side of the work, and the use spontaneously made of it by the pupils affords an excellent index of the work being done. As far as monetary grants allow, reference works are provided.

2. DISCUSSION AND DEBATE

These form a most interesting and useful part of the work. A discussion or debate is taken fortnightly in each of the four subjects, history, geography, reading, and literature. The discussion is based on some question connected with the work of the week. Occasionally a subject outside the ordinary course is chosen. An opening is usually made by the class suggesting the headings into which the discussion may be divided. A pupil is chosen to open the discussion under the first heading, and then a general discussion follows, questions being asked and opinions expressed, while the teacher corrects mistakes where necessary, suggests lines of thought and brings the discussion to a close by a short survey and a clearing up of any points on which the class has shown itself in error, or not too particularly clear, or on which a marked division of opinion exists. The teacher has also to see that the silent members of the class are encouraged, so that the whole class may be occupied.

When a debate is arranged, the pupils choose sides. The teacher acts as chairman, or as supervisor when a chairman is selected from the class. Rules of debate are followed. In favourable weather the discussions are held in the open air, and then the class is broken up into smaller sections, each under a leader, while the teacher passes from one to another supervising, correcting, and directing. A modified form of discussion-conversation lesson is resorted to in all parts of the school.

Apart from the methods mentioned to encourage the children to talk freely, another great help is 'screen lessons.' While a certain period is being studied or orally taught, the children are encour-

aged to bring pictures, newspaper cuttings, drawings, and maps bearing on the work. Screen monitors are appointed, whose duty it is to collect and arrange these on folding screens. Occasionally some of the best pupils in the preparatory student classes are sent to the lower classes to give a screen lesson.

The main advantages accruing from the discussions are :—

(1) They stimulate interest in the subjects of study.

(2) The teacher gains a better knowledge of individual children ; the reserved child gradually becomes more free ; misconceptions are revealed and corrected.

(3) They train in self-confidence.

(4) They broaden the mind as the child learns to respect the ideas and opinions of others.

(5) They train in the use of language.

(6) They produce keenness.

(7) They lead to much home and recreative work.

(8) They test the knowledge gained and the progress made.

(9) They give a valuable training in one branch of practical citizenship, *i.e.* the ability to express correctly and to discuss any question when called upon.

3. DRAMATISING

Dramatising is freely used throughout the school. Where the matter lends itself to such treatment, the class, with more or less help from the teachers, composes dramas and chooses parts. In the student class sections are formed, each with a leader. Each section gets up a drama, chooses parts, and presents the play separately to class and teacher,

when each rendering is subjected to criticism. The best section usually presents its version to the other classes in the school. In the upper part of the school use is made of extracts from standard works. The preparatory student class pupils prepare, mainly on their own initiative, a dozen or more dramatised versions of events occurring in the history course, while in the remaining classes other series, in greater number, are prepared.

4. SUPPLEMENTARY WORK

This includes :—

(a) *Reading.*—Historical readers, historical works from class, school, or village library ; each child keeps a list of books for present or future use.

(b) *Drawing.*—Weapons, types of architecture, imaginative pictures of battles or other events ; some of the drawings are used as part of the pictorial screen record.

(c) *Handwork.*—Helmets, swords, crowns for dramatic work ; models in cardboard and clay of walls, forts, pillars, windows ; the girls make costumes for the dramatic work.

(d) *Composition.*—Essays on subjects of lessons and on historical visits.

5. HOME AND RECREATIVE WORK

This includes :—

(1) Reading in preparation for discussion.

(2) Drawing and handwork in preparation for pictorial record and dramatic work.

6. TESTS

While the regular discussions and the talks to individuals, as study proceeds, form an excellent

test both of knowledge gained and of mental development, these are supplemented by written tests. Some pupils who do not excel in discussion show to much better advantage in the written work. The system of note-taking leads to much improved written answers, fuller and more logically arranged. Essays, too, are used as a means of testing.

Educational visits are made and a local history pageant has been prepared as a part of the school history course. It included local items and general events which were added to connect, lead up to, and create atmosphere for the former.

To summarise, the main advantages derived from the co-operative student class have been :—

From co-operation:

1. Better grading with respect to mental capacity and development.
2. Greater spirit of emulation leading to increased interest and keenness.
3. Broadening of outlook due to the blending of two points of view.
4. More solid work by reason of the example of greater conscientiousness on the part of the girls.

From study:

1. More scope for the individual.
2. Training in self-reliance.
3. Increased power of assimilating knowledge.
4. Increase in knowledge gained.
5. Habits of study formed.

The study atmosphere at the top of the school is the outcome of the method of approach to all subjects adopted in the lower and intermediate sections of the school. The method employed

is one of discovery or research, the aim being to use to the full the natural and proper curiosity of the child and to provide all possible opportunities for the enjoyment of that delight of discovery which is inherent in child life.

In all classes the lessons are drawn up on the following plan:—

1. *Things to think about.*—In reading, geography, and history a carefully selected number of questions are placed on the blackboard. These give definite aim to the lessons, and are so compiled as to awake in the child the spirit of the explorer.

2. *The search or study and the discovery.*—Here the child's own effort is of vital importance. The true joy of the work is lost to the child if the teacher tells rather than leads to the finding.

3. *Things to do.*—Having made the discovery, the child is eager to give expression to its thoughts and ideas on the new knowledge gained. This section affords scope for such expression and links up composition, handwork, drawing, and dramatic work with the subject in hand.

X

INDEPENDENT STUDY IN A GIRLS' ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: WOOD STREET, RUGBY

Adapted from the report of a lecture by Miss Price to the New Ideals Conference, 1916, by O. M. Andrews

LEMENTARY schools naturally vary with the locality, the Education Authority, the building and the size of the school, the type of children, and the capacity of the staff; but there are some difficulties which are common to all.

Every teacher has been confronted by the problem of the backward child—not the mentally defective, but the child of a seemingly immobile and unresponsive temperament, whose mind, rarely illuminated by a flash, absorbs ideas slowly and laboriously. In the large classes of an elementary school these children form an element which the faithful teacher dare not ignore. The brilliant child will make headway of herself, the average child, if educated on the right lines, will fill one of the places for which so many average people are required. It is the dull child who must be made to realise herself, to gain confidence and grip, that she may do useful work in the world. How to help forward the backward child without impeding the progress of the average and brilliant is one of the most difficult problems of a teacher.

At the Wood Street Girls' School, Rugby, there is an average attendance of 170 girls. The neighbourhood is rapidly growing, and the demands for admission are so numerous that it is exceedingly difficult to regulate the attendance. There are normally two promotions a year from the infants' department, and children are admitted at the age of 6½ years. A brilliant child may enter the top class in four years, an average child in five, while a backward child would take longer. It is obvious that in the event of her not gaining a scholarship and not leaving before the age of fourteen, a brilliant child may be in the top form for three years.

The problem is how to teach the class so as to avoid the boredom of continual repetition of lessons for the older members and to make a continuous system of education for the new-comers and to give a chance to the backward child. The solution suggested is a training in Independent Study, by which the bright child gradually becomes capable of using a standard text-book, and so is in less danger of 'marking time.'

The first class experimented upon consisted of thirty-three girls. An account of the occupations of their parents will help to show the type of child. Seven fathers were railway servants—these comprised one engine-driver, two plate-layers, one labourer, one guard, one fitter, and one signalman; thirteen were employed in engineering works—these consisted of five labourers, one toolmaker, two turners, one moulder, one draughtsman, one machinist, one borer, and one electrician. Five fathers were clerks. There were a coalman, a baker, a shop assistant, and a shoemaker. Four children were without fathers. The girls were generally well nourished and well cared for, so

there were no difficulties arising from malnutrition.

The first experiments were in history, using the books already in school in order of progressive difficulty. Definite lessons were given in summarising and making notes from a concise history reader. A chapter was read in class, the main point of each paragraph found and expressed concisely, and the whole chapter was summarised, by way of example, on the blackboard under suitable headings. When the children became apt in their suggestions they were allowed to apply the method to independent study. A series of questions was written on the blackboard and the class told to answer them in note form from the book. The answers were corrected by the teacher and returned to the class; a special correction lesson was then given in which the selection, expression, and arrangements were criticised. At the beginning it was sometimes necessary for the class, guided by the teacher, to do the whole exercise again and for the children to compare their first efforts with the final results. A higher stage was reached when the class was able to read through a chapter, find the main headings, and summarise.

They then passed on to another history reader which presented fresh characteristics. The author had a wider outlook and was more descriptive, but he was given to making digressions for two or three paragraphs and subsequently returning to his subject. The reader had to collect and classify the facts. The same variety and gradation of exercises was given as had been used with the previous book, but, in so much as a finer power of selection was required, the exercises were much harder. At first the children were told the numbers of the page and paragraph in which they could

find the answers to questions set, but gradually this plan was abandoned and the process of selection left entirely to the child. Again the success of the plan depended upon most careful selection and criticism.

The senior girls gradually became capable of studying from a standard history text-book such as is used in the higher forms of a Secondary School.

At first much help was required, and children were allowed to combine into small co-operative groups for discussion, asking help of one another when their interpretation was doubtful, or of their teacher when there was a problem which baffled all. They were trained in the habit of reading with the dictionary and atlas beside them, and were shown how to make use of the index to a book. Notes were made on the chapter studied, and written tests were given. The results began to show a grasp of the subject-matter and a power of discrimination which many critics deny to be possible for the elementary school child.

Such is the outline of the general plan, but it was subject to variation. Sometimes the children were given two or three books and told to read an account of the same events from each and combine the facts. The testing varied with the subject, and geography was connected with history whenever possible. The children made illustrations of the dress, arms, sports, punishments, and architecture of the times, and their combined efforts produced quite creditable history charts.

The oral lesson still existed, but it had a function different from the traditional one in elementary schools. It was used to pave the way for a new movement, to widen the horizon, to disentangle difficulties, and to connect events, thereby building

up a conception of history as a whole. It was incidental rather than formal.

Having met with encouraging results in the teaching of history, the principle was applied to other branches of work. The method naturally varied with the subject, and it soon became evident that the amount of independent study compatible with real growth and activity of mind varied too; for growth of mind means more than an increased accumulation of facts. Geography offered much scope. A child furnished with a knowledge of certain fundamental principles and acquainted with map signs can do a good deal of independent work. An introductory series of lessons on lines of latitude and longitude, climatic zones, the systems of winds, with the areas over which they blow, and factors determining climate, prepared the child for the intelligent perception of a map. The next step was oral map-reading in class, in which the child noted the position of the country, the build and slope of the land, the chief water partings, the courses of the chief rivers, the positions of ports, and so on. Their reasoning powers were called into play whenever opportunity offered; they were led to compare and contrast, and they were encouraged to conjecture the climate, productions, occupations of the people, and exports and imports from their knowledge of what determines these. The map-reading was very simple, a sixpenny atlas being the basis for most of it.

To get colour and interest, a descriptive geography reader was studied with the atlas. The method of guiding and testing varied. Sometimes a series of questions on map-reading was set; sometimes a chapter was studied from a text-book and the facts illustrated by a rough sketch map or recorded by notes. Sometimes a general state-

ment was written on the blackboard and the children had to verify it by a reference to an atlas. Such a statement as 'Austria-Hungary is a land of lofty mountains and broad tablelands, of wide plains and fertile lowlands, with mountain ranges forming natural boundaries and walling in large provinces,' will illustrate this. The children recorded the particular mountains and tablelands and plains, etc., which justified the statement.

In the oral lesson the teacher criticised the work, corrected misconceptions, and gave new knowledge that the child had no means of finding out. She frequently read extracts describing the countries studied. The human[1] side of geography makes a great appeal to girls, and such books as the 'Peeps at Many Lands' Series were among the most popular books in the reference library.

Under the heading of English was included the learning of recitation, the reading and studying of English poetry and prose, and the writing of composition. In reading and recitation the child was allowed great freedom of choice. Most of the reading was done silently, as one would read a book at home, each child keeping a list of the books she had read and occasionally being required to write a brief summary or make a programme of characters.

There is an excellent library for the top class, consisting of historical novels, books of travel, biographies and miscellaneous literature.

Books were mainly chosen because of their bearing on school work, taking into consideration the history, geography, and nature-work syllabuses. The children went naturally to the library to enlarge their ideas.

[1] For the most modern geographies emphasising the *human* side, see Fairgrieve and Young, *Human Geographies* (G. Philip and Son).

Side by side with this wide reading for pleasure, at least once a week one lesson was devoted to the reading aloud and studying of a standard work. In this lesson the object was not only to become acquainted with the narrative, but to observe and analyse the verbal descriptions, choice of words, and outstanding figures of speech, thereby indirectly raising the standard of composition and improving the vocabulary.

Each child selected her own pieces for recitation, and a record of the number of lines learned by her was hung on the schoolroom wall. Thus the cumulative knowledge of the class was greatly increased. The girls became acquainted with poetry by hearing their schoolfellows recite it; the boredom of continual repetition of one piece of literature was avoided, and the children who were particularly keen had unlimited possibilities of learning.

When a Shakespearian play was being studied, various scenes were acted, the girls selecting the scenes and characters and being helped with the interpretation.

In the reading of English poetry the great difficulty was to make a selection from the mass of material available, and the method adopted was to teach it largely, though by no means solely, in conjunction with history. Thus the most famous poets and writers were introduced while studying the age in which they lived.

One and a half hours a week were devoted to this kind of work, and by the time the girls left school they had become acquainted with a good deal of English literature.

The oral lesson still had a valuable place, especially in the studying of English poetry. In the upper classes the girls selected the part of a poem

which made the strongest appeal to them, so that each child had still to make an individual effort, though they were all taught to realise the beauty and meaning of poetry; also a child might have to write a summary of a poem in note form, to enumerate the expressions that are particularly apt, to write a direct prose account of a narrative poem, or to describe with a definite setting an historical poem.

When the Shakespearian play was studied, it was read aloud, in parts, and all explanations necessary to an intelligent following of the play were arrived at; then the children summarised the scenes or outlined the character of a particular person. In the latter exercise the girls tabulated the faults and virtues of the particular character, and in a parallel column gave the act, scene, and lines which verified the statement; this ensured careful reading and accurate analysis and prevented generalisation without sufficient proof.

The effect of the system on the writing of composition was most marked. The headings were clear and logically arranged and the paragraphs corresponded; the child's vocabulary was enriched and familiarity with books caused a decrease in the number of spelling errors.

Nature study proved a fruitful field for individual work in the lower classes. The children brought and examined their own specimens and recorded observations under the guidance of the teacher.

In every sphere of school life individuality was encouraged. Sometimes the girls made picture reproductions of literary scenes that particularly appealed to them, and they searched diligently through books and magazines for illustrations that would assist their efforts.

The system of teaching in the lower classes was modified to fit in with the scheme, for it was believed that, so far as possible, the whole school should pave the way for the final class, that the gradations between classes should be almost imperceptible, and that there should be unity of purpose throughout.

Independent study was adopted as an expedient, but is being developed as a creed, and the whole character of the school is being changed in the process. The teacher is no longer regarded as the last authority on every subject in the school curriculum; she is revealed as a learner as well as a teacher. The teacher goes ahead holding the torch and helping her pupils over the rough ways that she trod but a little while before.

Within limits, free discussion of school work was allowed.

It will be clear that 'private study' in this sense is no system of leisurely reading. It makes increasing demands on the skill and resource of the teacher, but it is claimed that the advantages accruing are proportionately great. It helps to simplify the problem of so-called 'multiplicity of subjects' (which is often the result of artificial organisation and lack of natural connection between the various school exercises) by breaking down artificial barriers. But the most valuable effect of the method is in the training of character. It not only develops qualities of accuracy, thoughtfulness, and concentration, but it increases the self-reliance and resourcefulness of the child. The spirit of inquiry is alive within her, and she knows how to answer its demands. She is beginning to develop the higher and rarer quality of judgment which will help her to distinguish the momentous from the trivial, and the evil from the good.

A sympathetic inspectorate has helped to make possible much experimental work, the Warwickshire Education Committee has generously supplied the necessary books, and the school staff has helped with that willingness which appeals to originality generally evoke.

XI

TEACH YOURSELF: AN ACCOUNT OF MISS MASON'S METHODS

By O. M. ANDREWS

'SELF-EDUCATION is the only possible education.' This is the underlying principle of the methods of the Parents' National Educational Union. Every child possesses the desire for knowledge, *i.e.* curiosity, and is endowed with powers which enable him to acquire knowledge with little aid from without and with little or no stimulus. Only some control is necessary to secure the act of attention and concentration.

The reader may say, 'I knew all this before and have always acted more or less on these principles.' The Parents' National Educational Union have obtained unusual results by adhering not 'more or less' but 'strictly' to these principles.

The General Organising Secretary (26 Victoria Street, S.W. 1) and the Committee of the P.N.E.U. are prepared to organise work in any district either in schools or in private families on the following lines:—

Children are divided into six forms and are admitted to Form I.*b* at six years of age, and reach Forms V. and VI. from fifteen to eighteen. There are more than two thousand members, some in girls' schools and in preparatory schools for

boys, and some working at home with a governess. Many of the teachers have been trained at the P.N.E.U. House of Education at Ambleside, a training college under the direction of Miss Charlotte Mason. Quite a large number of mistresses who teach under these methods have not, however, had the special training; the whole aim is that the work should be done as much as possible by the children themselves from suitable and well-written books. The importance of using 'first-hand' books is emphasised. Digests, compilations, selections, and such publications as 'Talks to the Children' are avoided, as the value of a book lies not in the story alone but in the telling of it, and it is not fair to assume that the children are not capable of enjoying only the narrative. The children are therefore put into direct communication with the great minds of our own times and of the past.

Programmes for a term's work are sent out from headquarters to each member, with a list of selected books, some of which last two years or more. The number of pages set is divided by the number of weeks in the term, or double the number if there are two lessons a week.

The work is tested by terminal examination questions also sent from headquarters, and the results of these are the criterion for the selection of the books. Constant revision of the choice is necessary, for if the children cannot answer questions on the books, it is concluded not that the children are stupid, but that the books are unsuitable, and a change is made.

The reading is all done during the hours of morning school, ranging from two and a half to four hours according to age, with a break for play or drill. This leaves the afternoons free for

such subjects as Singing, Drawing, and Handicrafts.

In the case of Mathematics, Experimental Science, Grammar, and Languages, oral lessons are required, but to a great extent the oral lesson is abolished, for great faith is put in the assimilative power of children. 'I think I could understand if you didn't explain *quite* so much' is the inarticulate cry of the children who in some cases are forced to be mere listeners.

Singing, Drawing, and Handicrafts are very little affected by these methods, but the reading includes such subjects as: Bible History, Literature, General History, Citizenship, Natural History, Geography and, for the upper forms, Geology, Astronomy, Botany, and Physiology.

There is a great variety in the time-table, each subject being studied for a limited period —twenty minutes, half an hour, or three-quarters of an hour. The length of the passage set only allows time for one reading, and the children, knowing this, learn to concentrate. Examinations are also taken without revision. To test whether the matter read has been assimilated, the children narrate a part or the whole of the passage. By this act of narration every power of the mind comes into play, a larger vocabulary is gained, and shyness and self-consciousness are conquered. If it is desirable to ask questions in order to emphasise certain points, these are asked after, and not before or during the act of narration, so that the child is not interrupted. Long explanations and opinions are avoided; discursive talk of 'grown-ups' in many cases bores the children, and their attention wanders to the first fly that buzzes on the window pane.

From the ages of six to eight, while the children

are learning to read and write, a great deal of history and literature is read to them and they are called upon to reproduce the narratives.

Bible Lessons.—It is the aim of the teacher to instil into the minds of the children, from the very earliest years, the actual words and expressions used in the Bible. The teacher prepares her lesson beforehand but she talks very little. The important part in the case of a class of younger children is the reading, which should be not so fast or so monotonous that it makes no impression. The story of Jairus's daughter was read to a class of small children and this is the story which a little girl of nine repeated :—

> 'Jairus came to Jesus and said, "Master, my daughter is very ill; please make her better." And then another man came and said, "Don't trouble Jesus because your daughter is dead." But Jesus went with Jairus, and when He got to the place where Jairus lived everybody was weeping, and He said, "Weep not, for your daughter is not dead but sleepeth," and they mocked Him and said, "Of course she is dead." And He went into the room and left everybody else outside and said to the daughter, "Arise," and she arose, and He said to the mother and father, "Give her something to eat, that you may see that she is really alive."'

An oriental custom such as the wailing for Jairus's daughter is explained. The children are helped to make pictures in their mind and any moral lessons are pointed out.

History.—When the children are young the interest of the history lessons centres round famous men. Form II. reads English history and also the contemporary period in the history of France. In Forms II., III., and IV., general history is learned from a book on the British Museum. In connection with this book, the

children keep a note-book, with a page set aside for each century, on which they write down the events which occur in their reading; they sketch on the opposite side a vase, a weapon, or other specimen which is a record of the century. A history chart is also kept. A sheet of paper is divided into one hundred squares for a century, ten years to a square. Events are recorded in the squares by symbols such as a crown or fleur-de-lis for a coronation, crossed swords for battles, etc. Dates are given with every history lesson, and a few are learned and entered in the chart at each lesson. Forms III. and IV. use the same history book on French history as Form II., but they are expected to recognise cause and effect. In Forms V. and VI. a considerable amount of history is read alone, *e.g.* Carlyle's *French Revolution.*

Literature.—This subject is taught in conjunction with the history. Historical novels are read illustrating the period of history which is being studied. *Greek Tales* and the *Pilgrim's Progress* are found to be the favourites of small children. Children in Form II. read Shakespeare aloud. Longer books are read to them. An historical novel, often by Sir Walter Scott, descriptive of the history period, is also usually set each term and, in many cases, a contemporary writer, so that the conception of the history is thus enlarged. Form IV. reads poetry and contemporary literature, *e.g.* Bacon's *Essays* and Milton's *Poems*, while studying the reigns of James I. and Charles I.

Composition is not taught as a separate subject, but the effect of the system of narration is that through familiarity with 'first hand' books the children naturally express themselves well and spell correctly.

Dictation.—Unseen dictation is not given. The

children are allowed to prepare one or two pages of a book they are reading, *e.g. Robinson Crusoe*, and they are expected to write a small part of it correctly.

Picture Study and *Musical Appreciation* are taught in connection with literature. The children are acquainted with the works of great artists, so that they can distinguish between a Turner and a Constable, a Rembrandt and a Velasquez. A programme of music is issued every term in *The Parents' Review*, a magazine published by the P.N.E.U., and at the end of each term a concert is given at the House of Education at which the works studied are performed.

Citizenship.—Indirect teaching on the duties of a citizen is given in all lessons, and the children read Plutarch's *Lives* of Greek and Roman soldiers, patriots, and statesmen.

Geography.—The children read travel stories by such travellers as Mrs. Bishop (Isabella Bird), Sir Francis Younghusband, Sir Henry Norman, or the lives of explorers. The children are also taken out of doors to study watersheds, rivers, formation of rocks, and the use of ordnance maps.

Nature Work.—This is mostly taught out of doors. The children are taken for walks and are taught to observe trees, flowers, birds, and butterflies, and each child brings home some specimen which is painted (with a brush only) in a nature note-book. On the other side of the page is written the place where the specimen was found, the time of year, and other facts that cannot be recorded by the brush. Some experiments are shown.

This is a very brief survey of the work which is carried out without evening preparation or re-

vision. The desire for knowledge is developed, no other desire being allowed to intervene. Therefore no prizes are given to encourage avarice, no marks or rewards to encourage ambition—all work is done for the pure joy of learning. By this method the children are induced and enabled to think for themselves, so that their education never finishes and the thirst for knowledge, which is natural to every one, can be appeased.

As to results, we may perhaps close this article with the verdict of the head master of a council school in Leeds. He says :—

Our children have had oral lessons and voyages imaginary, and contour lessons, and worse still commercial geography, and date books and pleasant extracts in reading books that you could read in three months and whose thoroughfares you traversed backwards or forwards for the remaining nine months till you were bored stiff.

But you say, What is this extra reading that Miss Mason gives? Let me give you a list of what my kiddies in smoke-grimed Leeds have read in the autumn term.

We read a section of Arnold Forster's English History, the contemporary section of French History, roughly speaking from the Napoleonic Wars to beginning of the Crimean Wars. We read some of *The Antiquary* of Scott, the second canto of Byron's *Childe Harold, The Ancient Mariner, The Lay of the Last Minstrel,* selections from Burns, Goldsmith, Wordsworth, Cowper, and Shelley. We learned something of the painters: Turner, Gainsborough, Romney, and others, and contemplated copies of their works. We looked upon the history of our country, not only on the political and social side, but also saw it as it was reflected in the painters and writers of the time.

We watched the unfolding flower and growing seed in the *Nature Book* of Stopes, and saw it actually in the growing plant. We read the delightful nature stories of bees, etc., in the *Fairyland of Science.*

We turned to the unchanging East and saw, as through a glass darkly, the land of the Pharaohs portrayed in the *Book of the British Museum,* marched and fought again with Alexander in the pages of Plutarch, learned to know the meaning and purpose of our own lives in Miss Mason's book, *Ourselves,* began to grasp the faith and trust that underlies all true citizenship in Forster's *Laws of Everyday Life,* and last, but not least, wandered in the forest of Arden in the company of Rosalind, Orlando, Touchstone, the melancholy Jacques, under the guidance of one William Shakespeare. . . .

But there are certain things we did find out. First, as I have already hinted, a limiting of our view as to the value of the oral lesson, an enhancing as to the value of letting the child come face to face with the best writers on a subject. Second, the discovery that the pupil had greater powers of mind than we (optimists always) had given him credit for, that the child thought not specially in single words, but more frequently in whole blocks, that the quicker children had almost uncanny powers of 'sensing' a passage, that they took a whole picture in a sort of stride and passed on.

We found that ideas were being garnered and vocabularies were enlarging. We found that pupils were discovering harmonies between ideas really similar, belonging to different circumstances and, better still, collision between one kind of experience and another—that hard but most certain way of knowledge—that mental upset between different

analyses, to be harmonised by some truth deeper still, that was waiting for the seeker before peace could again reign.

Then comes the question, Did the children attend? Now, there is the secret of the method. All the lessons call for what Professor James calls exteriorisation. The professor says somewhere, 'If a man have knowledge and cannot exteriorise it, then he really hasn't got it.' A somewhat Hibernian remark, but true. Therefore each lesson calls for exteriorisation, and this helps towards concentration in the hearer. Three ways of exteriorisation come to my mind :—

1. *The Written.*—Twenty minutes' reading and ten composition (and you get more in that ten minutes than you used to get in thirty in the old composition lesson).
2. *Oral.*—Narration of the meaning of the part read, and here you get a rapid improvement in the pupil's power of expressing himself as well as in verbal memory. One boy (gifted with verbal memory), after hearing the soliloquy 'The Seven Ages of Man' read once, stood out and gave it very nearly verbatim. It was very remarkable.

It is something if by this scheme one has been enabled to let in the light and air of a gentler and cleaner life and open pathways of joy along roads otherwise choked or barred by ignorance or upbringing, or worse.

> 'Let knowledge grow from more to more,
> But chiefly reverence in us dwell.'

XII

A SCHEME OF SELF-GOVERNMENT IN THE UPPER SCHOOLROOM: BOOTHAM SCHOOL, YORKS

By BRIAN SPARKES, M.A.

N common with other classes in the school, the Upper Schoolroom has for years enjoyed a certain degree of self-government. The class elects every term a class council, which is responsible for appointing officers to perform certain duties, and is entitled to represent the interests of the class: but the problem has always been how to give the council a standing which would indicate its importance as a class institution, lend some dignity to its deliberations, and afford the individual members of it a field in which their judgment could be exercised.

It is, no doubt, possible for the members of such a body to exercise judgment in a judicial capacity, but for various reasons no powers of this kind have been given them. Prominent among these is the habit of espionage which is apt to grow up if the class is turned into a court to try delinquents; moreover, the cases are often too difficult and delicate for the decision of young boys and the consequences of unjust decisions too serious.

It appears, therefore, to be more desirable that boys should be employed in estimating the value of what their fellows did right, rather than in

assigning a penalty in cases where they had done wrong; and this meant turning to some kind of administrative self-government. Further, it had to be a kind with a spice of commercial incentive added to it, in order to hold the scheme together. The most satisfactory kind of reward to employ seemed to be one benefiting the whole class, and not merely individual members of it.

In view of these different considerations, the following plan was devised and explained in full detail to the whole class.

In addition to the ordinary 'averages' in school subjects, it was proposed that there should be leisure-work averages also, to be announced at the same interval as the school-work averages. Leisure work was divided for this purpose into athletics, Natural History Society activities (including workshop and many other things), and library. Work done was to be valued according to an *a*, *b*, *c*, and *d* scale, as in the class averages, but without assigning definite percentages. Both in school and leisure averages the attainment of *a* standard would mean the addition of one book to the library; of *b* standard, half a book.

The first task was to collect the information needed for making an accurate estimate of leisure work done.

The five members of the council (to whom for this purpose I added the librarian, as he seemed to me an excellent man for the job) divided up the whole class of thirty-two boys between them.

Thus each councillor had four or five boys under his charge, excluding himself. He was provided with a note-book, and was responsible for keeping an accurate register of the leisure work done by his charges and by himself. He canvassed them once a fortnight, reporting the result in detail to

me, which, at his dictation, I put down in a record book.

The second task was to estimate the value of the work done. At first sight the difficulties here seemed insuperable. What kind of comparative estimate was to be made between a century in a cricket match and a collection of beetles?

I convened the council and we held a long session, discussing how best to proceed.

We had very different achievements to assess. One boy had given all his time to 1st XI. cricket matches, but with only moderate success; the question was raised as to whether the actual attainment of success in these leisure pursuits was the thing which mattered, or only the expenditure of effort and time.

Another boy had used a camera at every available opportunity, but he could only show general views of York. He had been no excursions, and the council held that he made poor use of his opportunities. At the first average he received *c*; at the second, on showing no improvement and no enterprise, he was awarded *d*.

A third boy was alleged to have read twelve books in six weeks, including, it was stated, two large works on polar exploration: the council were very sceptical and declined to believe this sort of thing was done in the summer term. The case of the boy whose only achievement had been to read half a book, the title of which he had forgotten, stood alone.

Our method of procedure and our decisions were naturally more businesslike and practical later in the term: a comparison with previous performance could readily be made, and the previous award tested. The amount of work in some instances was surprising.

One boy who gained *a* on each occasion had been sixteen excursions, used a camera both for general and archæological purposes, brought his diary up to date, kept a garden, practised and entered for the bronze medallion, and read six library books, acquiring a strong liking for the work of Charles Reade.

Several points of interest emerged from these discussions with the class council. (1) The personal element entered less into the decisions than I had expected, less than one is accustomed to when working with boys' committees for selecting teams. I seldom had to call attention to the fact that we were merely engaged in estimating value of work done irrespective of our liking for or hatred of the doer.

Thus a very popular member of the class had secured *b* in the first-half term estimate. In the second-half term he had been five excursions, kept a garden going, brought his diary up to date, played cricket for his house, attended extra drawing classes and an examination in drawing, practised and entered for the bronze medallion in the bath, and read some of Fletcher's History. In comparison with his own previous efforts, and those of others in the class, the council after long discussion decided that he was a better *b* but not good enough for an *a*.

I found, indeed, no inclination to award *a* except to clearly first-class candidates.

(2) It became clear that the council had no use for boys who begin a task and fail to persevere in it: for those who pretend to be naturalists but have no diary or notes as evidence of their keenness. 'His diary is up to date because he has done nothing to record,' was the laconic comment given upon one dubious case under discussion.

There was ruthless criticism of those who ' dabble ' in things and do nothing.

(3) There were instances where the councillors had given assistance, made suggestions, or lent books to their charges.

(4) The council were unanimously of the opinion that the scheme had been worth while, and had promoted keenness and enthusiasm; they also maintained that it was an advantage to know exactly what was being done by the members of the class. They naturally did not mention a further benefit which all of them had gained in some degree—a sounder judgment in distinguishing good work from inferior.

XIII

MUSIC AND CITIZENSHIP

An experiment in teaching Musical Appreciation at an L.C.C. Elementary School in the Isle of Dogs, Poplar, by C. T. Smith, author of 'The Music of Life.'

N.B.—The London County Council accepts no responsibility for any of the opinions advanced by officials in its service. Facilities for experimenting were granted by Mr. C. H. Conn, Head Master of the School.

HERE are times when we teachers take stock of ourselves and of the results of the educational work with which we are connected. On such occasions there may be an inclination to think that, after all, people are to a great extent just what their teachers have made them; and if in bitterness those members of the community, still constrained to live in sordidness, should mentally place us in the dock, Justice may mete out to us some measure of culpability for their unhappy condition and circumstances.

Whether we are in any way to blame or not for the lack of culture among the labouring classes, the fact that the workers' lives are drab and unrefined, in spite of, or because of, our teaching, is enough to make us furiously to think.

At the present time a deep craving for cultural development is being voiced throughout the labouring world, and if this is to be satisfied there

must be a new orientation of school subjects and new methods of treatment; for in the future teachers, with others, will undoubtedly be held responsible if these humane aspirations are not encouraged and facilities provided for their gratification.

This means that the humanities will have to receive more attention in elementary schools and that the main reason for teaching them will have to be definitely cultural, the aim being the production of refined men and women. This being the goal of the instruction in these subjects, only that treatment will be justified which will bring about the desired end. Leisure time is usually the normal period when it is possible to acquire culture, to retain it and to enjoy its possession. Teachers must therefore cater for leisure interests. Now one of the chief and most social of leisure pursuits is music, and in the work to be described an indication will be found of how an attempt has been made to treat the subject so that it may contribute to æsthetic development.

When this attitude towards the teaching of music was adopted, practical observation soon made it clear that the leisure value of music would only exert a full influence through attendance at musical performances. The majority of workers who attain a measure of proficiency in playing an instrument might, by their playing, spend their leisure usefully; but in very few cases does their executive skill conduce to the production of culture. Often the acquisition of culture has nothing to do with executive ability, the process of acquisition being mental. Of course many people do learn by doing, and in so far as that is true, executive skill should be developed and utilised. Merely for its own sake, the training of executive skill

was plainly not worth consideration. In any case, as children in the mass have not the opportunities of becoming competent players, the task was to make them intelligent listeners. With music, the possession of the power to listen intelligently also presupposes the possession of much musical knowledge. Children had therefore to be given a knowledge of all the kinds of music they could hear in cultured musical circles, in the concert hall, the church and cathedral, and the theatre. As it would have been a waste of time to teach music of an ephemeral character, only the very greatest and best of the music of all nations and of all times was to be drawn upon. The children would then have standards by which to judge contemporary work.

The first step in the evolution of a scheme was the compiling of a song syllabus for the whole department which would consist of music selected from every worthy source. It included every type of song from folk song to art song, and excerpts from all the great oratorios and operas, besides selected passages and themes from instrumental compositions. Allocation was made to the ten classes of the school according to the ability required to understand and interpret the music. In this way children began to make acquaintance with a miniature world of music. All temperaments were provided for and every child had the opportunity of responding to some type of music, as the selection embraced all distinctive styles of any value.

Even the rudiments were taught by using real music from the song syllabus instead of from those manufactured special exercises which have no permanent value. Children had their own staff manuscript books, into which they copied the principal subjects of orchestral compositions and

the leading themes of the standard choral and operatic works. With the addition of copious notes these books really became annotated thematic guides to musical literature.

Then it was found advisable for children to have an understanding of the fitness of things, in other words it was necessary for them to recognise good form. It is well known that some music fails to grip, although possessing much beauty, simply through lack of form. Music with less beauty may hold an audience by virtue of an artistic arrangement of material whereby the beauty is displayed to advantage. But beautiful music also possessing beautiful form may lose some appeal if no effort is made to direct attention to beauty; for there may be no consciousness of its presence. What to one may be mere repetition, may to another be shapeliness, the completion of an image, an emotional necessity, a logical conclusion, an illuminated restatement—indeed, many things excepting mere repetition. As children do not evolve the power to feel the inevitableness of perfect construction without guidance, an attempt was made to allow them to gain an insight into this shapeliness in music by utilising the dances they had been taught.

The children usually performed several dances during a lesson, and this suggested the idea of experimenting to find the best sequence which would, owing to variations of rhythm, allay fatigue and retain interest. This was of course a common-sense proceeding and nature's own prompting. By playing the music of the dances in the same key, and keeping the movements in the same sequence as that found acceptable for actual dancing, another natural step was made towards the shaping of a group-composition analogous to

the ancient suite. It was then only a matter of teaching the dances required for the suite and allied compilations, or of constructing movements expressive of their rhythmic figures, for children to obtain by practical evolutionary methods an intelligent comprehension of the beauty and significance of form, both in the simple folk tune and the most complex tonal structure. Examples illustrating most musical constructions were contained in the song syllabus, songs from Mozart's operas even exemplifying sonata form. From this practical feeling for form to the aural perception of it in instrumental compositions was an easy stage. It has not been possible to develop these dancing and eurhythmic activities so as to produce ballets, but there seems to be a wonderful future for this branch of music training for the production of graceful and cultured workers.

Having arranged for the teaching of dances and of songs, it had to be recognised that this would do little more than foster a liking for the dances and songs taught, or for dances and songs as such. To induce a liking for symphonies, oratorios, and operas, it was soon evident that symphonies, oratorios, and operas had also to be taught—that is, taught as a whole. This fact had been appreciated when the song syllabus was compiled, so that the requisite illustrative matter for special lessons was included. It was still necessary to survey the ground to be covered and to make suitable distribution. The children in classes up to Standard III. were fully capable of performing their dances, singing their songs, learning rudiments, and appreciating simple form, and their syllabus allowed full scope for the employment of childish faculties. It was decided, after experimenting with several classes, that the teaching

of the additional subjects should commence with Standard IV. With this class was introduced a definite course of lessons on the evolution of musical notations, whilst the next standard had a series of lessons on song and song writers. Standard VI. dealt with oratorio music and musicians, Standard VII. completing the scheme by taking operas and their composers, and instrumental music.

The mere statement of these subject headings gives no idea as to the actual series of lessons forming each group. It should be mentioned that the subject matter was always dealt with in an evolutionary way, the children tracing natural developments right up to the present day. This was particularly the case with the study of harmony, which was also introduced in Standard IV. and taken mainly by vocal response to dictation. The children thus obtained by practical means an insight into harmonic construction sufficient for the purposes of appreciation. Then when it is remembered that the whole song syllabus had been deliberately devised to supply illustrations to these lessons, there should be no difficulty in perceiving that each lesson was really a lecture-concert, children on occasion supplying both lecture and concert.

Every opportunity was also taken of effecting correlation with other subjects. Treatment was therefore as adequate as circumstances permitted, and it was possible to show that music, in its widest significance, is woven into the whole texture of the educational fabric, and that it is allied to all forms of living knowledge. Scripture contributed much sacred music and dealt with many of the oratorio stories. Science enlightened the children inregard to acoustics. Drill accounted for certain dances. History treated of time values

and perspective, sobering rash judgment. Art supplied design, colour, and decoration. Manual training produced stage properties in many media. Needlework resulted in the provision of costumes. Practical arithmetic was employed in innumerable calculations and transactions. Literature covered the dramas, legends, epics, poems, and stories forming the literary inspiration of the musical masterpieces. Of course such correlation, being mutual to each subject, exemplifies the oneness of knowledge which deals with the fulness of cultured life.

Even with this thorough correlation there was room for further developments in the direction of home preparation on the part of the children. Music was claimed as a leisure pursuit, therefore leisure time was the time when interest in it had to be fostered. This recreative interest in music was engendered when children were given the opportunity of preparing songs and other compositions at home for performance at school. In this way good music was also introduced into the homes of the pupils. 'Does your mother know this song through your learning it at home?' was asked a few weeks back. 'This song!' came the answer—'my mother knows the whole opera!'

Reverting to the series of special lessons already mentioned, it may not be amiss to state that, normally, they were taken in each of the four upper standards every fortnight, the intervening time being utilised in their preparation or in developing the ideas given currency in lessons previously taken. The way in which the scheme worked can be gathered by noticing how material to illustrate a lesson was obtained.

Among the lessons dealing with the evolution of musical notation was one on Modes. Now the

cerpts having been taught in various classes throughout the school. The lessons obviously presented few difficulties.

In order that certain standard works could be studied to the best advantage, illustrated thematic programmes were graphed and supplied to the classes, and the children were also taken to hear performances of these works. The class-room concerts dealing with these works were practically condensed and modified versions of the actual performances to be heard. Of course, the gramophone was of great use at these music-makings and supplied the fugal instrumental numbers and even orchestral accompaniments to vocal work.

Parents on occasions were invited to hear their children sing and see them act, and they showed much appreciation of the work. Indeed, some parents lent gramophones for use in the school lessons and even bought some of the records required. With this co-operation, it was possible to give many symphony concerts, the records being played so frequently that the children knew the themes, understood their treatment, and recognised the sounds of the instruments to which they were allocated, besides being able to grasp each composition as a whole and appreciate its total beauty. The gramophone was also used to supply classical music to which children could perform their dances, and to which they could give eurhythmic representation on their own initiative, extemporising movements in keeping with the characteristic rhythmic figures of the music. The older scholars were supplied with miniature full orchestral scores of certain symphonic compositions and so were able to follow the gramophone records of the orchestral music

more intelligently than would otherwise have been the case.

The next experimental stage after giving classroom concerts on standard works was the performing of them in their entirety. At various times the *Messiah*, *S. Matthew Passion*, *S. Paul*, *Il Trovatore*, *Maritana*, *Tannhäuser*, and several other works had received rather full treatment, but in 1914 a staged performance of Gounod's *Faust* was given, practically without cuts and with the choruses in four and sometimes in five parts. Here was a practical attempt to unite nearly every subject of the curriculum. Here, indeed, were history, literature, science, art, dancing, handicraft, and music all combined in the presentation and exposition of a universal story, not of less appeal through being modified for the purpose. Here also was an effort to unify the work of the whole school in a joint production, for the play was produced by boys and girls, whilst the infants were not without a benevolent interest in the whole of the proceedings.

The war very effectively put an end to all activities of this nature, but they were resumed in January of 1920 when Mozart's *The Magic Flute* was staged and performed by Standard VII. boys alone. This venture was of considerable interest, as not only did boys take girls' parts but practically all the boys knew the entire opera and could therefore take each other's parts in an emergency. That of course is an important point—all the boys knew the whole of the opera. There is little cultural work being done for children in the mass if intensive and extensive tuition is given to a few boys possessing extraordinarily good voices. The boys with no voices to speak of have just as much need to know the whole of an opera, includ-

ing the solos they cannot hope to sing creditably, as those boys blessed with the finest vocal organs. Much of the beauty of music is not appreciated altogether through the aural sense, but is a mental enjoyment felt through personal and intimate vocal reproduction, no matter how bad from the point of view of others. The tunes of an opera by Mozart may be sung by a lad with a voice like a frog, yet the utmost beauty they contain may be revealed to him as he croaks, his mind being in a state of sublime ecstasy. Music is then likely to be a living force.

Many other similar experiments have also been made, one being an attempt to make a school song-book of entirely original youthful effusions; but particulars need not be recorded here. The oratorios, operas, and orchestral concerts to which children, after preparation, have been taken are also too numerous to mention.

It may, however, be wondered how far the work has been successful according to the aims of the instruction. Obviously it would be foolish to claim the regeneration of even a few people in a district through a musical influence exerted by their children. It is also too soon to observe ultimate effects on the scholars who have undergone the course of instruction. But that the work has produced very important fruit cannot be doubted when it is known that many old scholars now, in their leisure time, attend the operatic performances at Covent Garden—in the gallery—Drury Lane, and other theatres and, in some cases, of touring companies in the suburbs; they also attend the Queen's Hall for orchestral music, and the cathedrals and concert halls for oratorio performances. For labourers, boiler-makers, engineers, and carpenters to do this, surely proves that

music is, in their case, becoming a leisure interest and making for refinement.

Remembering that this work has been carried out in an old school possessing no hall, and in an isolated district—an island from which there are only two exits—a bridge and a tunnel—to the outer world, and that children had to be taken about six miles to attend opera, it does seem that the results now apparent are all that could be expected. The work has, without doubt, contributed to make many young people much more cultured than they would otherwise have been, and there is every reason to think that, as they continue to grow, some of them will eventually become cultured citizens, able to respond to the appeals of all forms of beauty, and thus able to make their lives fuller, richer, and happier as they undergo a spiritual development.

N.B.—Those interested in this unusual experiment and its results will find a fuller treatment in Mr. Smith's book, *The Music of Life*.—ED.

XIV

TRANSMUTATION: AN EXPERIMENT, 1919-1920: HOWELL'S SCHOOL, DENBIGH

By Canon LONSDALE RAGG

'IF the Trinity were not revealed,' says Francis Thompson, 'I should nevertheless be induced to suspect the existence of such a master-key by the trinities through which expounds itself the spirit of man. Such a trinity is the trinity of beauty—Poetry, Art, Music. Painting is the eye of passion, Poetry is the voice of passion, Music is the throbbing of her heart. So absolutely are these three the distinct manifestations of a single essence, that, in considering the general operation of any one of them, we consider the general operation of all.'

Francis Thompson had nothing to do with the inspiration of the experiment which we are about to describe, but his words so aptly illustrate the principle involved that it is tempting to use them as a text.

A year ago at Howell's School, Denbigh, Miss Crowhurst, the senior music mistress, conceived, and elaborated in conjunction with her colleagues, the idea of expressing definite pieces of music in terms of art and literature. As far as literature is concerned, the idea of such a transmutation of musical themes had been anticipated by Antonio Fogazzaro in his volume, *Fedele*, where passages

from Clementi, Beethoven, Boccherini, Martini, Chopin, and Schumann are treated in this way, but the conception as it came to Howell's School was as independent of Fogazzaro as of Francis Thompson.

Last year's effort proved so fertile that the experiment has been repeated after the lapse of twelve months, and the results have abundantly justified the repetition. An account of the first experiment appeared in the *Times Educational Supplement* and other leading publications. It took the following form, which was also adopted this year. Five pieces of music, chosen for competitive execution in the different grades, were offered also to every pupil in the school for 'translation' into prose or verse or into pictorial form. The musical themes in the first experiment were:—

Grade IV. Waltz by Earnshaw.
Grade V. Siciliano, by Schumann.
Grade III. Pierrot, by Beringer.
Grade II. Scherzo, by Beethoven, from Sonata in A.
Grade I. Fantasie in F♯ minor, by Mendelssohn (1st Movement).

And in the second:—

Grade V. Morris Dance, by Stanford.
Grade IV. To a Wild Rose, by MacDowell.
Grade III. Of a Tailor and a Bear, by MacDowell.
Grade II. Humoresque, by Grieg.
Grade I. Study, by Roger Quilter.

The judge in the first competition was Mr. Victor Booth, Associate Professor of the Royal Academy of Music, and in the second Dr. Walford Davies, Director of Music in Wales, each of whom showed deep interest in the experiment, which has also appealed to other musical experts. Each year's

results manifested quite clearly the power of music to stimulate, in very definite ways, the imagination of a child of average intelligence. It is to be noted that the competition on its literary and pictorial side was absolutely voluntary, and this gives an added psychological interest to the statistics.

The pictorial representations shown up in the two years reached a very large number and embraced a very wide range of subjects. The artists portrayed sylvan scenes with fairies, elves, wood nymphs and such like delicious creatures, sometimes sporting together, piping, dancing, teasing, sometimes playing pranks with the heavenly bodies; round-eyed bunnies, flying birds, quaint heavy owls, and little humans introduced into the fairy realm; animated nursery folk, teddies, golliwogs, and dolls of every normal type, dreamers blowing bubbles in the nursery, or by the lone seashore; spacious skies and misty seas, stark desert wastes, eerie mountain peaks in changing lights, towering cliffs and surging waves, lowering storms and magic casements looking out upon them; allegories whether in the form of three desolate mountains or the thickly peopled road of life with the bewildered soul at the crossways; religious symbolism, appearing now as a file of monks disappearing into the gloom of their monastery, now as a vision of a pale cross in the desert of No Man's Land, and finally—and this each year—as a Calvary.

There is not space to describe more than a few of the most striking of these pictorial representations of the second year. An Upper Fifth Form girl, who in Grade IV. produced a Calvary of real solemnity, expressed the music of Grade III. in a magnificently grotesque design of elves playing pranks with sun, moon, and stars. A black

creature sprawls on the side of the sun, on whose head is balanced a top hat; others have bridged with rope ladders earth and a star, and the star and the sun, and are climbing up. One dark-blue fellow is in the act of diving from another star to the sun, yet another has harnessed a pair of butterflies, tandem, to the crescent moon from which a pair of his companions hang as from a trapeze. Seven hang similarly from the sun himself—the central figure of the picture who smiles a tolerant and expansive smile upon their revels. Beneath is the earth with a striking design of black hills and a single fir tree.

Stanford's *Morris Dance* inspired two excellent goblin illustrations, each from the hand of a Fifth Form girl. The one, who was also responsible for a delicious animated nursery, has here represented with a subtle simplicity the study in contrasts of the musical piece. 'Follow my leader' is the main theme of the picture. A goblin in the moonlight makes gauche attempts to follow the fairy's movements. Secondary contrasts are introduced; a bright moon in a dark sky, a clumsy owl on a branch, and a fluffy fairy rabbit in the foreground. The fairy's dancing represents the rhythm of the music, the halting efforts of the goblin, a heavy phrase for the left hand. The other Fifth Form girl, who produced also a very effective prose piece in Grade II., here represents the three parts of Stanford's sketch by three episodes of sporting elves in brilliant primary colours, bringing out, especially in the first episode, the alternations of loud and soft in successive pairs of bars. Two elves conceive a brilliant idea, next they whisper together, while the music of the left hand suggests the slumber of their companion. They laugh over their idea and conspire again in whispers. In the

second section they approach the sleeping comrade and tickle him into wakefulness. At the end he gets on to his clumsy feet and in the third section joins sleepily in the dance.

In Grade I. *A Study* by Roger Quilter lent itself peculiarly to the imagination, and at the same time spoke continuously to the listeners, so that the results were rich at once in thought and in loyal following of the details of the music. Among not a few exercises worthy of note was that of a Sixth Form girl, by whom the three parts of the music are again represented by a trio of pictures. A fantastic mountain peak is displayed to our view in three different lights—first in the grey dawn, next under a brooding thunder-cloud, and last suffused by an unearthly red-gold light with a mysterious vision of the Grail shining through aloft. Psychologically interesting, though scarcely entering into the sphere of art—unless in the most intensely futurist sense—come certain graphic representations of mingled colour and vibration, of which very original examples occurred in the first competition, rather feebly echoed in the second.

On the literary side there are dainty little rhymes and lyrics, dialogues, dramatic episodes, tragic scenes, serious sonnets, and concentrated epics; Nature is hymned in all her pathos and glory—the cradling of a baby breeze, the parentage of the Spirit of Spring, the colloquy of the blackbird and the stream, the brilliance and joy of the sunshine, the drama of the sunset. Some of the little prose pieces are crammed with poetic feeling and imagination. Fairyland is represented here, too, with all its microscopic mystery and its rollicking fun; eerie scenes on rugged shores, where legendary monsters seek the blood of innocent maidens;

quaint conceits of baby minds; episodes of haunting pathos, drawn with masterly reserve of language. Sometimes the music would suggest a well-known theme, like the Retreat of the Ten Thousand, or a scene from the French Revolution. Where the imagination was unhampered and could penetrate into the realms of mystery and legend, the results were more striking still and more satisfactory as a rendering of the 'lingua ignota e lontana' of which Fogazzaro speaks. To one writer in the first competition Mendelssohn's *Fantasie* spoke of an impassioned sermon uttered in the face of an enraged congregation by one whom they finally assailed in the House of God, and the dual refrain of his earnest pleading and their savage response. To another the same piece conjured up a Dantesque vision of the spinning globe, from which ever and anon flames burst forth, and utterances by heroes of the ages resounded, heralding in the day of universal peace.

Here space prevents us from quoting as we would, but for our one example we give a prose piece of a child of twelve inspired by Earnshaw:—

A little girl stood on the shore. She was a pretty little girl of about six years old. She was watching the sea come in.

The sea seemed to be telling her something and calling her. 'Come, He calls,' said the sea, as it washed over her feet. 'What are you saying? I don't understand,' said the little girl.

. . . . . .

The same little girl stood in a little fir-wood on a hill slope. She had come abroad with her mother and father, and was now staying at a hotel in the little village of Menaggio, on Lake Como, in the North of Italy.

As she stood on the hillside looking at the blue waters of the lake which she could see through the trees, she thought of what the sea had said to her.

We dance with the rest,
For our hearts seem light ;
Yet we think and the gloom is there.
Is aught worth while ?
We 're tired of the fight—
The question pleads like a prayer—
' Does nobody care ? '

Lo ! a ray of light
Steals into our night
With a peace infinite—
' There is One who cares ! '

(Age 17.)

Inspired by Beringer's *Pierrot*:

Flit here, flit there,
Down the moonlight stair,
In and out, all about—
What was that ? Take care !

Lightly go on tip-toe—
Two lost babies below !
Softly creep, they 're asleep !
Should we steal them so ?

Whist ! See it !
A GREAT BIG HUMAN !
Scurry ! Flurry ! ! Flit ! ! !

Skip here, skip there,
Elves hide anywhere !
Flitter, flick—scatter quick—
Hush ! Hush !—Take care !

From this year in which the pictures showed a
her general level of technique and the poems
rth were considerably more numerous, we
the following :—

Inspired by Stanford's *Morris Dance*:

ABOUT THE MILL

When shadows fall,
And screech owls call,
And everywhere is weird and dark,
Then if you keep quite still and hark,
You 'll hear—oh yes, you will—
A quiet whispering round the mill.

Then if you creep,
And take a peep,
Bands of fairies dance around
A baby squirrel they have found,
You 'll see—oh yes, you will—
Bands of fairies round the mill.

Deep in the shadows
Under the hedgerows,
Crowds of goblins dance and hop,
Up they get and down they flop,
You 'll laugh—oh yes, you will—
To see those goblins round the mill.

And if you look,
And look, and look,
You 'll see the pretty fairy queen
All wrapt in dainty rainbow sheen,
You 'll love—oh yes, you will—
Those elfin things about the mill.

Inspired by MacDowell, *To a Wild Rose*:

TELL ME WHY

Tell me why, tell me why,
Oh so many things,
Why a fairy and not I
Should have such lovely wings?

'It splashed against my legs as though it wanted to be near me,' she said, 'but I do not know what it was saying: and yet it was talking to me.'

'Come!' whispered the trees; 'He said, Come!'

'Oh!' said the little girl, 'the trees are talking to me now. They seem to be beckoning to me.'

The trees bent towards her, and she thought they were nodding their heads.

'They are saying, "Come"; I know they are; and the sea was, too; but I don't understand. Who am I to go to?' she said.

The trees only said, 'Come!'

. . . . . .

The little girl stood in the beautiful Church of S. Mark at Venice, where she was spending the winter. She often went there in the evening, just before the service.

To-night she was very thoughtful.

'I wonder,' she said, 'if the saints on the wall are speaking to me? they are looking at me, I 'm sure.'

She walked on, stopping to look at the images of saints and pictures.

'I think this is rather like heaven,' she said: 'I think the floor of heaven is built of coloured marble, like this floor. This floor shakes up and down when you walk, and looks like the sea, only it 's different colours. I wonder what the sea and woods were saying: I think they were saying, "Come!"'

'Come! Come!' said the echo from among the pillars and arches of the great church.

'The saints are speaking to me,' said the child. 'They are saying, "Come!"'

'Saying Come,' said the echo.

'Oh! do tell me what the woods said!'

[Echo] 'Woods said.'

'And the sea!'

[Echo] 'Sea.'

'Who am I to come to?' said the child.

[Echo] 'Come to.'

'Oh! do tell me I'

[Echo] 'Me.'

'Come to me—but who 's me?' she cried.

[Echo] 'Me.'

'Oh! do tell me, you beautiful saints; and you, you beautiful picture of Jesus!'

[Echo] 'Jesus.'

'Me!' she cried. 'Now I know: the sea and the woods told me to go to Jesus, and I will go.'

And she did go. That night an old priest saw her sleeping near the wall under a picture of the Crucifixion.

'Ah!' he said, 'she will never wake up on this earth again. She has gone to Jesus.'

(Age 12.)

From the first competition we may also quote the following poems:—

Inspired by Earnshaw's *Waltz*:

Do come out and play with me!
There are daffodils and a catkin tree—
Primroses grow in a wood I know,
There 's a big dark hole where bunnies go,
And p'raps we might see a Fairy!

Won't you come and play with me?
The woods grow dark when the sun goes out
An' a little cold wind shakes the leaves about—
Don't you want to see that Fairy?

If you won't come, I don't care, you see:
At the end of the path by the catkin tree
I know I shall find my Fairy!

Inspired by the same piece:

We are all alone,
Though the world is vast;
Alone in the midst of a crowd.
If 'tis all a dream,
How long will it last?
Who the pitiless dreamer
If we are the caste?
In anguish we whisper aloud—
'Does nobody care?'

I should love two fairy wings—
I 'd fly away at night
To visit palaces and kings,
And, who knows, p'raps I might
Even fly up to the moon,
Or call upon a star,—
I 'd have to start this afternoon,
They say it 's very far.

Do you think, do you think
If I was very good
That I could *grow* a pair of wings—
I wonder if I could ?
But, deary me, I don't suppose
That *grow* they ever would,
Or even sprout ; because you see
I am so seldom good.

(Age 16.)

LITTLE PEOPLE

The house is still ; slowly the shadows creep.
I watch each corner, straining every sense.
Nothing seems real, for here there reigneth sleep,
My fear is growing ever more intense.

The nursery firelight flickers on the wall ;
I sit upright, seeing each sleeping face.
If only Baby would awake and call !
Then all the mystery would leave the place.

Something creaks loudly ; I am still with fright ;
Now the whole house is full of awful sound,
These are the phantoms of the still, dark night,
That gambol in the shadows round and round.

Then in my fear I hear a silvery song,
No grisly phantoms now from shadows peep—
I see the fairies in a merry throng,
And by their music I am lulled to sleep.

(Age 18.)

AT EVENTIDE

'Tis eventide and every tree and flower is asleep,
And here and there from out the sky
The small bright stars do peep.
They light
The world through all the night,
Until
The first red streak of dawn
Appears, and puts them all to flight,
Then breaks the sunny morn.

I saw you early, flowers fresh
Besprinkled with the dew,
I saw you in the golden moon
When you in beauty blew.
Your pale
Soft petals look'd so frail,
As you
Your faces to the sun
Did lift, and seemed to be so glad
The day was not yet done.

And now at even when doth rise,
The nightly breeze so cold,
Your faces small grow sad and you
Your petals in do fold.
This way
And that you rock and sway,
And as
The wind doth pass you by
You weep, and wish for no more night
For days that never die.

(Age 14.)

SONNET

Alone, I stood upon the boundless heath,
Above, the vast expanse of wind-swept sky,
The purple heather and the gorse beneath,
And overhead the solitary peewit's cry,

Which plaintive fell upon the sighing wind,
And all else silent as the grave, and still,
And round my numbed soul icy fingers turned,
Strangling the breath of life till, cold and chill,
I cried in anguish the unanswerable why
That my uncertain soul had torn and riven,
Finding in that great silence my reply—
Dost think the answer will so soon be given?
Life and not Death, will solve Life's mystery,
And light is theirs that have in darkness striven.

Inspired by Grieg's *Humoresque*:

Scarlet poppies, golden corn,
Earth and sky ablaze with splendour,
Colour everywhere is born,
Colour vivid, strong and tender.

Sunshine filters through the trees,
Sunbeams dance in fairy fashion,
Flowers quiver as the bees
Bump them with a gentle passion.

Colour, motion, sound and scent,
Such as this, is rarely given—
Seldom known—A man's not meant
To mistake the Earth for Heaven.

(Age 18.)

Inspired by *A Study* by Roger Quilter:

In the tops of waving trees,
Swaying gentle as a bird,
Was born the sweetest little breeze,
That ever stirred—
That e'er was heard.

Rhythm nursed this baby breeze,
Whose woes and joys were harmonies,
Whose youth was full of melodies
All sung to please
The god of Trees.

Passion one day tore the breeze,
Filled it with emotion strong,
Almost tore it from the trees,
And for long
Filled its song.

While the passion rocked the breeze,
Rhythm ruled its wild endeavour,
To escape the guardian trees,
And to sever
Them for ever.

The cry uplifted by the breeze,
Full of passionate despair,
Reached at last the God of Trees,
Who then and there
Answered the prayer.

Rest was granted to the breeze ;
The Passion died in bearing Peace,
And in the tall, caressing trees,
Praise for release
Did never cease.

Then Death claimed the sweet-voiced breeze,
Who, in sunset's dying rays,
Thus comforted the sighing trees.
'Henceforth,' God says,
'Silence is praise.'

SUNSET AND NIGHTFALL

'Twas day ! 'twas day ! all sunlit was the earth,
And full of movement's music, while the trees
Their leafy branches waved, and in their mirth
They laughed the sleeping flowers into birth ;
And rocked their cradled nests in tenderest breeze.
The whole glad earth proclaimed her joy aloud
To see the merry Wind God-speed the sky,
To see the Goddess of the Fleecy Cloud
In merry gambol swift before him fly.

Only the great grey God of the Night
Seemed to breathe he was there,
His girded gown ready to shroud o'er the light
In dreariness, darkness, despair.

Unheeding Earth delivered up the song,
Of all her happenings to the pulsing air.
The Wind God caught and mingled it among
His own most dulcet tones. Now here, now there,
The circuit of the dazzling sky he sped,
The laughter-laden Goddess sped before,
Her cloudlet gown in fleecy gems she shed,
Bejewelled wide the vast blue vaulted sky.
The sky well knew her beauty thus arrayed;
And dazzling depth of colour there displayed ;
The merry Wind God caught the cloudlet gown,
And with his Wind Wand made him wavelets there.

He dipped them low in shade,
Their crests he bathed in gold,
Much beauty there he laid
And fantasies untold.

Only the great grey God of the Night
Crept, crept into sight,
His girded gown ready to shroud o'er the light
O'ercome by his might.

The Goddess turned to see the great grey God,
The moments slowly passed all still and sad,
With impulse sharp the Wind God tossed his head,
The Goddess laughed and sprang across the sky,

There, in all his beauty, was the Sun.

Near and nearer yet she drew,
In his embrace her beauty glowed,
She laid her arms athwart his breast,
And dared to share his radiance.

Only the great grey God of the Night,
Their joy to abate,
His gown slowly shrouding th' offending sight,
Crept on like fate.

The deep sky paled, yet still it smiled,
The softest, saddest, silvern blue,
The Wind God in his loneliness,
With broken reed piped sobbingly,
The waters of the earth, its hills and vales,
Were bathed in divers soft and stilly hues,
The air was filled with rays celestial,
And all was folded in transcendent gold.

The great grey God of the Night,
His sad mantle spread o'er the Sun,
His gentleness covered the light,
'Tis dreariness, darkness begun.

The Goddess in her longing still for mirth,
His mantle piercèd with regretful sighs,
And through the swift enclosing folds she poured,
Her sweetest, saddest story to the Earth.
In sympathy the Earth her song intoned,
Reflected there the fashion of her tale,
The Wind God softly sobbing there bemoaned ;
The colours all around grew thinly pale.

The grey folds closed with certainty,
Earth saw the shrouding of the light,
Her song of happenings gently ceased,
The flowers slept. 'Twas night, 'twas night.

It speaks well for the school that no single form failed to contribute work of real merit, though the artistic sense seems to tend to concentrate itself specially in certain groups. Psychologists and educationists in general will do well to watch this movement, from which important results may be obtained for the scientific training of the imagina-

tion—but in a short article it has been impossible to do justice to the rich and enthusiastic, and almost tumultuous expression of imagination brought out by this experiment. Its originator has already started pioneer work on kindred lines, beginning so to speak at the other end. She offers themes in colour, shape, and texture to be transmuted into music. The correlation of dancing with music, literature, and art, which would complete the cycle, has already been introduced in an informal way, though not yet in connection with these competitions.

The adventure has begun, and the enthusiasm of teacher and taught might seem to warrant the hope that the quest will not be abandoned till there dawns upon the seekers the vision of that unity which underlies the intellectual and emotional variety of the human spirit in its creative mood.

XV

ART AND INDUSTRY: UNDERGLAZE POTTERY PAINTING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

By ALICE GOSTICK, Art Mistress, Castleford Secondary and Technical Schools and Normanton High School

I BELIEVE that most Art teachers and many others interested in Art teaching have at last concluded that the true way to cultivate taste and discrimination, where all artistic crafts are concerned, as well as an eye for form and a general sense of colour, is to encourage practical craft work alongside more tedious academic studies; it is better for little girls to broider stars on handbags than to study wearily the work of ancient looms, better for little boys to beat brass into lovely shapes than to make faces over Florentine gates.

And that is why, taking advantage of the presence of a small pottery in the town, we chose rather to paint our own fancies on household wares than to copy upon paper the classical or fantastic designs of long-dead craftsmen.

In the past æstheticism has been abused, neglected, and almost entirely lost in a maze of plant form and ordinary 'applied art.' We had a William Morris to educate the grown-ups; but

there was no one to teach the youngsters the difference between good and evil in Art.

About a century ago the already mentioned pottery was famous for its Dunderdale ware, of which there are some good examples in the Victoria and Albert Museum.

Dunderdale bears a slight relationship to its better-known brother, Wedgwood.

At the present time the pottery produces only ordinary terra-cotta black-ware, bowls, jars, etc., and much household crockery. This latter has quite a good clay body, and is commonly decorated with transfer, printed, or sponged patterns, which, whilst they no doubt make the articles more marketable, can have no claim to be beautiful.

The manager, realising the inferiority of his semi-naturalistic designs, poor in drawing and worse in colour, wondered if it were really impossible to put into the market better craftwork at reasonable cost. The firm now supplies us with tea-sets, vases, jam-pots, dishes, bowls, milk-tumblers, etc., in their unglazed, biscuit state, and, after we have painted thereon, fires the same at cost price, in return for which favour we allow any of our patterns to be appropriated.

The enterprise has been successful from the first, both from commercial and educational standpoints. The children delight in the growth of their ideas. Here at last is something they can touch and use, as well as admire. They admire the thing more, and rightly so, because they can use it. When all our useful and necessary belongings are beautiful, we shall no longer need the Victorian and Rococo *objets d'art* to gloss over the grey ugliness of a utilitarian age.

We want people to have beautiful things always about them, instead of occasionally admiring

them from afar when happy chance or a wet day drives them into some museum or city gallery.

We have all felt for a long time the need of colour in our homes and an inexpensive household ware we need not blush to use. We try to supply these needs and hope to make it possible for people of small means to possess and enjoy goods at least equal to continental productions. There is no obvious reason why Flemish and Hungarian peasant pots should be so very superior to Castleford peasant pots.

For a little over two years we have painted pottery in our schools. The children retain their original enthusiasm and willingly pay the cost price of each article plus a small sum to defray colour expenses, etc. The scheme is entirely self-supporting.

As to the designs, we believe in freedom of expression and spontaneity. We abide by few academic rules, and all naturalistic representations are discouraged. We paint fruit dishes whereon writhe impossible snakes and improbable dragons, and creatures altogether doubtful. We design countless processions round bowls; mythical, historical, and even present-day personages play their part as decorative values in crude colour or silhouette. Various schools of dancing rehearse on jugs or round plates, strange exotic flowers trail about tea-cups, and characters from nursery rhymes and home-made rhymes trip happily within a maze of squares and spots, and sometimes lose themselves. We paint with as great a variety of colours as can be used with discretion, and have found that all-over patterns improve the coarse ware considerably.

Free renderings of Rhodian and oriental motives

have proved most effective, but anything like slavish imitation is not allowed.

Pottery painting is not reserved for older, more advanced pupils. Not only do the student-teachers themselves prepare tea-sets for college use, but the Form I. mites quite successfully manage to place coloured spots and brush-work forms around little plates or mugs which are proudly carried home and promptly put into use.

Exhibitions have already been held at the school and elsewhere, and have shown how meals can be cheered by the discriminate use of colour on the table, and a charm added to our everyday life.

People have shown considerable interest and appreciation, and the pottery we have so far produced is much prized in many Yorkshire homes.

XVI

AN EXPERIMENT IN PRACTICAL CIVICS

By E. M. WHITE

OF late years the subject of Civics has assumed a widespread importance in the discussion of certain educational circles, and in many schools it is already on the time-table. Manuals of various kinds have been issued, giving details of local government, taxes, laws, etc., but no outstanding work has yet appeared which clothes the facts with imagination, *points out significances, and invests Civics with* that atmosphere of devotion and inspiration which should accompany the study of the subject. Meanwhile teachers are experimenting in different directions, and Professor Patrick Geddes, with his formula of Place, Folk, Work, shows the lines on which to travel.

The following account is written with the desire of spreading the idea of one method of arousing interest in Civics and of awakening that civic pride which is a step towards the active citizenship that should be the aim of all Civics teaching, and, with some widening of meaning, of all education.

In dealing with local government—of course, illustrated by that of my own town, Brighton—the thought occurred: Why not take the history of the town? Since the present has grown from

the past, it can only be adequately understood by studying its roots. The search for material, in books and objects, disclosed so much that was evidently unknown to the majority of the inhabitants—and this would be true of any town—that I conceived the idea of holding an exhibition illustrating the past history and present activities of Brighton and suggested it to my pupils—girls of fifteen and sixteen years of age—who had been impressed and interested by the history of their native place, and whose willing help was obtained. I may say, in passing, that, unless willing co-operation is given by the pupils, the plan may as well not be adopted, as no pursuit can be of ultimate educational value if it is followed grudgingly.

Various girls volunteered to undertake the different tasks, which included :—

(*a*) Drawing enlarged copies of illustrations of old streets and houses of Brighton, of the Chain Pier blown down by a storm, of plans of the town at different periods, of famous buildings of the past, and of portraits of former celebrities. These could not be obtained except from books, and therefore could not have been shown had they not been copied.

(*b*) Writing out large charts giving a sketch of the history of the town, a list of famous people who had lived in the town and particulars concerning them, the population of the town since 1801, war work undertaken by the town, etc.

(*c*) Drawing various plans and maps of the town, county, and district.

(*d*) Drawing on a large scale the arms of the borough and of the county.

(*e*) Printing quotations (given later).

(*f*) Printing labels and headings for the different exhibits.

(*g*) Collecting sea-shells found on the beach, naming and arranging them.

(*h*) Collecting, naming, and arranging grasses found in the district. (The classification and collection of the plants was kindly undertaken by the botany mistress.)

(*i*) Bringing any objects of interest that could be borrowed from friends—*e.g.* one girl's father lent a valuable collection of old prints; others had pieces of the old Chain Pier; another brought a meteorite found near Brighton; some had mugs which had been presented to elementary school children at coronations, the Jubilee, etc.

(*j*) Calling at various places, such as the station, tramway office, gas office, and factories, to ask for views of their works.

(*k*) Bringing picture postcards or views of every place of interest in the town, such as hotels, churches, hospitals, schools, public buildings, etc.

The curator of the local museum was willing to lend coins that had been dug up and photographs of Roman vases unearthed in the vicinity. He would not allow the most valuable exhibits to leave the building, but suggested that girls should draw or paint them, and we therefore had coloured illustrations of old Celtic and Roman remains. Much help was also obtained from the museum with regard to the naming of shells, seaweeds, and grasses.

The editor of the oldest-established local newspaper was visited, and he kindly lent a volume of his journal issued a century ago. He also printed an article sketching the early history of the town which I wrote as a preliminary to the exhibition, and in which I sought to show the struggle and history of the townspeople rather than the connection of the town with royalty, etc.

One term was occupied in preparing the exhibition, all the work being done by the girls at home, with no neglect of other work. Nothing was 'set'; they were told what was wanted, and usually more than the number required offered to do it. Towards the end different groups of five or six girls volunteered to stay some forty-five minutes after school to mount specimens, post-cards, and pictures on brown paper—a task which took more time than we expected. One morning was spent in fixing the sheets on the walls of the hall by means of wooden frames. Invitations were sent to parents and other townspeople who might be interested.

One wall was covered with representations of the past, commencing with a large chart, arranged in centuries and indicating the main events in the history of Brighton. Much interest was concentrated on the copy of a contemporary diagrammatic picture of a French invasion in the sixteenth century, when the town, now containing over 130,000 inhabitants, consisted of only four streets. On this side also were ranged all the old prints of various streets, buildings and district (obtained mainly from an old curiosity shop owned by the father of one of the girls), and plans of the town at different periods. On flat desks below were Roman coins dug up in the neighbourhood, photographs of Roman urns, and paintings of Roman glass; a Celtic brooch, etc., from the museum; a facsimile of the first newspaper printed in Brighton, and a file of the same journal a century old; relics of an old pier and paintings of it; an illustration of a cricket match played some fifty years ago, and another of a scene from *Dombey and Son*.

To many people a great deal here exhibited had been unknown, and it was gratifying to notice the

appreciation aroused by the knowledge that their native town could boast of centuries of labour, struggle, and independence before it was designated a fashionable watering-place.

It is a mistake frequently made to treat history as ceasing about fifty years ago, so that the majority of pupils leave school with some knowledge of the story of England to 1867 or thereabouts, but with no link joining what has been to what is. Civics could become such a connection, and by dealing with the present and with actualities and tendencies, it might be a guide to thought and action in our complex civilisation. For youth should not be plunged into the sea of after-school life rudderless, and with no chart of discovered lands or dangerous rocks. It should have presented to it, during its school life, a view of its actual country and district, with the possibilities contained therein; that is, the 'commonwealth should express itself in the school.' Therefore the present, growing out of the past, and touching the life of all, should be appreciated and studied in a natural and unbroken sequence with its antecedents.

For this reason Brighton in 1916 was represented on the next wall, and here also much that had been unknown to the visitors appeared, more particularly in the pictures shown of various industries and factories. (Most of these were cut out from booklets, obtained by application to the places, though it had to be explained that nothing in the nature of an advertisement was intended.) Such works as a pill factory, bakery, printing works, machine laundry, and railway, gas, and electricity works were illustrated. Educational institutions occupied a prominent place, and included both interior and exterior views, obtained chiefly from

prospectuses; there were large privately-owned schools as well as the Municipal Training College, Technical College, School of Art, and secondary schools. Views of elementary schools were difficult to obtain, but a history of one of them, written on the occasion of its centenary by the head master, was a valuable acquisition. Churches, a few of each denomination, including the Jewish Synagogue and Salvation Army Hall, were pictured mostly on postcards; and special features of interiors, such as an old font, had been obtained in prints. The hotels, hospitals, and other buildings of interest—town hall, public library, museum, etc.—were succeeded by views of the channel and the surrounding country districts. On the desks in front were copies of Brighton guides in French and Esperanto; pieces of meteorites found near by, a sheep bell used on the downs, and some framed views.

Next came the war-work undertaken by the town; a chart gave a list of the activities for which Brighton had made itself responsible—hospitals, munition works, funds, making hospital appliances, etc.—and pictures were shown of women workers on the trams, at the railway station, and in other positions, of Lord Kitchener's visit to the wounded Indians, of the Home Protection Brigade, the Boy Scouts and Girl Guides, and of police-women. A specimen powder-bag made in Brighton, badges of special constables, and a collection of all the flags sold for different funds completed this section.

Maps and plans covered another space; a map of Sussex and a geological map of the same district 'placed' the town, and another showed the railway system; a complete plan of all the streets

had been taken from a directory; plans of the tramway system and the bus routes were also shown. Since 1801 the census has been regularly taken, and the population for every decade was written on a chart, together with the area of the borough. Near this was a large drawing of the borough arms, with a description below in heraldic language; the arms of the county had also been drawn.

An attractive feature proved to be the collection of wild flowers from heaths, downs, hedgerows, etc., classified and named. The grasses of the district had also been collected, and seaweeds dried and shells gathered; these three sections were mounted on large sheets of drawing paper, and made an effective display, together with specimens of dried flowers.

The last wall was covered with portraits of famous people who had been born in, or were connected with Brighton. Their names, dates of residence, particulars concerning them, or interesting items were written on a chart; and another gave a list of the various royalties who had dwelt in Brighton. Writers especially abounded, but the list included statesmen, clergy, artists, soldiers, and local celebrities of the past. We were fortunate in being able to obtain portraits of the past mayors of the town from an old directory, and the present mayor and members of parliament were included. Want of space precluded our showing other present officials of the town.

Lastly, as a motto to all the rest, three sheets were displayed on an easel: the first had inscribed on it 'We are citizens of no mean city'; the other two had quotations printed from two great writers on Civics, the earliest and the latest—Aristotle

of the fourth century B.C., and Patrick Geddes of the twentieth century A.D. Said Aristotle :—

'One citizen differs from another, but the salvation of the community is the common business of them all. . . . A citizen is . . . able and willing to be governed, and to govern, with a view to the life of virtue.'

And Geddes :—

'A city is more than a place in space : it is a drama in time. . . . To realise the geographic and historic factors of our city's life is the first step to the comprehension of the present—one indispensable to any attempt at the scientific forecast of the future.'

It is obvious that other places would have different points of interest, and would provide exhibitions varying in character. Brighton itself is lacking in dramatic history in the usual sense, and though it is an olden town, the flavour of antiquity is absent. But there are very few districts which could not follow some such general plan as has been sketched above, and none where the effect on the pupils of the school and the community outside would not be beneficial. In the former would be aroused a civic pride that is an incentive to civic service; and the latter would derive interest and a desire to continue past traditions. There has been some talk of forming a permanent exhibition in Brighton on the lines of mine, but whether the idea will flower into an accomplished fact remains to be seen.

That it has been done is the main merit of the account here given, and that it will be done again elsewhere is the hope of the writer.

XVII

LOCAL SURVEYS

By V. A. BELL

HOW much can be done by way of Regional Survey in a town is shown by the following description of the work accomplished by members of the Lollard Street Scout Troop, Lambeth. Strictly speaking, this experiment is not quite in line with the purpose of this book, which was to describe work actually being carried out in schools, but some account of a piece of educational work carried out in the evenings as an *amusement* may possibly not be out of place.

The survey of Lambeth was stopped by the war, in 1915.

It was essentially a 'Town Survey' and at first did not appear so interesting as a survey which could be carried out by a troop living in such a place as Winchester, Ludlow, or Chester. Yet the boys became enthusiastic over their expeditions and secured valuable information; they also benefited by the training in live citizenship.

1. The ordnance map of the district was studied with a compass and the directions well driven home.

2. With the aid of this map outstanding features (churches, buildings, gasometers, etc.) were picked out and named when viewed from an 'outlook

tower,' the top floor of a tall school. Photographs were taken of the views in all directions, and these when placed in a line formed a panorama of the district. The map was referred to, to find the easiest way of reaching any particular feature, and a diagram was made of the eight chief points of the compass. At the end of each point were printed the names of the special features that lay in that direction. In all districts there is some eminence (hill or church tower) from which this can be done.

3. Maps showing the physical features of the district were constructed; also a model in clay. In this case it was a map of 'London before the Houses,' and it brought out the marshlands and streams that are not shown on the modern map.

4. Patrols were sent out to bring in specimens of soils wherever digging operations were going on. With these specimens the geological map was explained and copied. The cause of gravel at Kennington, for example, was easily seen, when the course of the River Effra was traced out on the physical map. A coloured drawing showing a section of the artesian well that supplies Lambeth Baths was brought in by a scout and was copied.

5. A collection of local picture postcards was made, also old maps and views of the district.

6. A visit was made to the local library and many old maps and pictures were discovered. Certain patrols were set to work to copy some of these. (There are stores of valuable materials lying in drawers at most libraries and museums.)

7. Where pictures could not be obtained photographs were taken of particular places, factories, old houses, beauty spots. These were all used in connection with some part of the survey.

8. *The Growth of the District.*—This was studied

from the old maps and certain points explained, *e.g.* the swallowing up of the villages (Kennington, Stockwell, Brixton, etc.).

9. Maps for outdoor work were found to be necessary. Parts of the ordnance map were graphed off in large numbers and used for note-taking.

10. The patrols were allotted certain areas and were told to note on their graphed maps the sites of all old buildings, with the dates if available. The results were compared with the old maps already possessed.

11. The same groups also mapped down at different times the street names, industries, means of communication, open spaces, places of amusement, public houses, places of worship, schools, etc. etc.

The results were discussed. Place names were discovered to be exceedingly interesting.

12. *The Old Buildings.*—Visits were made to these, *e.g.* Lambeth Palace, Lambeth Church, the old Town Hall, and their histories explained.

13. *The Means of Communication.*—Maps were made of the railway, tube, bus, and tram routes. Patrols selected certain busy spots and jotted down their observations. An interesting talk followed on suggested improvements.

14. *The Industries* (decayed, decaying, and growing).—These were mapped out, and in the talk that followed, the results showed the huge preponderance of 'domestic' trades—laundry-work, tailoring, pickle making, blouse and dress making. The moving out of Lambeth of the industrial factories, *e.g.* glass making and pottery, was noted.

15. *The Public Houses.*—These were inserted in the maps and compared with the map given in Booth's *Survey of London.* The decrease in

numbers was shown. The talk on public-house names brought out some interesting historical facts: *e.g.* 'The Two Sawyers,' 'The Axe and Cleaver' both recall the boat-building industry that flourished in Lambeth during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; 'The Jolly Gardeners' was also marked on the eighteenth-century maps, when wealthy houses with large gardens were common; 'The Marsh Gate' stands where the Toll Gate crossed Westminster Bridge Road, etc. etc.

16. *The Open Spaces.*—These were mapped out and the scarcity noted in the crowded areas. This was a valuable exercise, as it led to the securing of the use of Archbishop's Park and a disused burial-ground as sports grounds for children.

17. *Amusements of the District.*—The groups noted down the sites of the cinemas, theatres, concert halls, etc. These were discussed with their influences and compared with the sports of our forefathers. Cuttings from the local newspapers of past history often gave light here and were carefully preserved. Vauxhall Gardens naturally figured largely. The bad side of cinemas, professional boxing, gambling, etc., was discussed.

18. The good influences at work in the district were surveyed. The schools, polytechnics, art centres, churches, scout troops, boys' brigades, recreation grounds, etc. These were discussed and their usefulness explained.

19. *The Local Authorities.*—Patrols were sent out to explore certain streets and to make out a list of the buildings and concerns controlled by local authorities. These included town hall, baths, library, fire station, tramways, underground conveniences, sewers, water supply, bridges, infirmary, workhouse, police station, lighting, paving, and cleaning of streets.

The functions of the various authorities were discussed.

20. The feeding of the district led to many useful tasks. Patrols visited shopping centres and brought in lists of places from which goods came. These were noted in shop windows, on boxes, labels, tins, etc. The markets were discovered and visits paid to Covent Garden, Billingsgate, and Borough Market. The prices on the costers' stalls and in the shopkeepers' windows were compared and discussed. The milk supply and the milk traffic at Vauxhall Station were interesting, as also were the flour mills that are established on the Thames from Blackfriars to Battersea.

21. A survey of Lambeth's portion of the Thames was made and notes taken of the cargoes of lighters and barges, the bridges, and of riverside industries.

22. The troop made the acquaintance of the report of the Medical Officer of Health. This led to a survey of the health of the district. Graphs were made by the patrols, of the birth and death rates and the incidence of the various infectious diseases. Talks on personal hygiene were effectively given at this stage and on the dangers of overcrowded areas. A visit to the parish church and a chat on the parish registers, which were examined, was appreciated by the scouts, who were particularly interested in the cases of plague and ague that occurred in the seventeenth century.

23. A competition was held between patrols for the best list of trees and flowers found growing in the district, and specimens were brought in.

24. The beautifying of the district led to much interesting scouting. All streets lined by trees were marked on the maps, also those having front gardens. The value of flower boxes and flower gardens was pointed out. The great improve-

ments in the Prince of Wales' estate at Kennington were compared with that part of the estate where the leases have not run out. A competition was held for drawings and for suggestions as to how to improve ugly spots. The public parks were visited and their special features noted.

Other exercises that developed scoutcraft were undertaken as they suggested themselves. Many pleasant hours were spent in mounting the results on sheets of brown paper, and the information accumulated, with maps, postcards, pictures, drawings, and photographs, made a pictorial survey of Lambeth from the geographical, historical, social, and other points of view, which although elementary was nevertheless valuable.

XVIII

THE PATROL SYSTEM IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

By B. WILDE, Head Master, Blackley Municipal School

FOR several years the Blackley Municipal School has been run on the patrol system, with the scout law as school law, and a troop of boy scouts, and latterly class packs of wolf cubs, as a part of the corporate life of the school.

Each class is divided into patrols, consisting of eight to ten children, including a leader and deputy. These two children sit at the back desk with the other members of the patrol in front. The deputy is second in command. He sits in the same desk as the leader, and is expected to lend a hand in anything that the leader requires to be done. When the leader is absent the deputy takes his place.

Each patrol has a motto, and a flag upon which the girls have worked in colours the patrol badge—an animal, a bird, or a flower—the name of the patrol, and the class. This flag is decorated with ribbons for patrol successes, and with rosettes and tassels for honours gained by individual members of the patrol. A ribbon is added every time the patrol gains first place. Each patrol has a different coloured ribbon. Every member of the patrol is

expected to know all about the animal, bird, or flower constituting the patrol badge, and be able to draw it.

An election of leaders and deputies takes place each month, so that every member of the patrol has a chance of becoming a leader during the year. The children become leaders as a result of their own strenuous and continued effort, the choice of their classmates and of their teacher.

A week before the election of leaders the class is told what section of work will be tested. An average is given in arithmetic and English, and the first ten on the list stand in front of the class and are questioned by the rest of the class on the prescribed work. A vote by ballot is taken and, subject to the approval of the teacher, the most popular candidate gains the coveted position of leader and the next becomes deputy. All children know that merit means promotion. This acts all round. Leaders are anxious to retain their position. Ambitious ones desire to gain at least a place in the first ten. Children soon learn that success depends on their own efforts.

The fact that children prepare for these tests in their own time is of great importance to them and to their teacher. They visit the library and ask for special books to read up special work. A child learns to work on his own without the aid of the teacher. Thus incidentally the habits of self-help, self-control, and purposeful effort are engendered. These tests are not looked upon as examinations, but as opportunities afforded to the children of showing what they can do.

A leader's outstanding duty is service. He helps the teacher and the others in his patrol. He is the teacher's trusted servant, and it is an honour to be trusted. He is expected at all times to set an

example of good conduct, punctuality, industry, and thoroughness. He is the champion of the school law and, if the teacher leaves the class for a time, he takes charge and is authorised to see that work proceeds as though the teacher were present. A well-managed patrol can be trusted to go on with its work entirely under its own patrol leader.

A leader keeps a record of marks gained and lost by the members of his patrol. He prepares weekly lists, showing the record of his patrol. These lists are posted on the notice board. He is responsible for the distribution, collection, storage, and safe keeping of equipment. He is the friend and willing helper of every member of the patrol. It is his business to devise means whereby his patrol may do well, to help the weaker members of the patrol, to stimulate the careless, indifferent, and lazy, to stop lateness, to lessen absenteeism, and to see that the sick ones are visited.

Much is made of the leader's position. He wears a distinctive badge, and his name is posted on the 'leader' list in his class-room. The names of all leaders are read out by the head master to the whole school each month. On this occasion the leaders stand with their decorated flags near the head master's desk, so that all may see them. Any leader who has retained his position at the head of his patrol for three or four months is complimented before the whole school, and is heartily cheered by the children.

Marks are given for all work, and special marks may be gained for intelligence and smart answering of questions in all lessons. Certain lessons are mainly conducted by the leaders, in order to develop initiative, resourcefulness, concentrated effort, and energetic endeavour. We have not

space to detail much of this work, but the following may serve to indicate its character.

Once a week, in the arithmetic lesson, the teacher sets and marks the sums but does no teaching. The leaders, when they have finished a sum, may go to the weaker pupils, point out mistakes and give hints, but they are in honour bound not to tell the answer. The aim is to get as many sums right as possible, and the patrol that gains the highest marks has won and is awarded a bonus of extra marks. These extra marks are keenly sought after, as they may mean all the difference between first and second place for the patrol at the end of the week.

Marks are deducted for unpunctuality. This preventable loss of marks may be the means of robbing the patrol of top place. The 'lates' are watched, worried, and 'called for' till they mend their ways.

Every Monday morning the head master visits each class. The leaders stand in front of the class with their lists, the deputies behind them with the decorated flags. Each leader, beginning with the first patrol, announces the position of his patrol, the number of times it has been top, and the names of the first and second on the list with the number of marks in each case. The head master shakes hands with the leader of the first patrol, and this leader's name is inscribed upon a framed card which hangs in the central hall.

There is keen competition each week for first-patrol position, as ten marks are given to the patrol towards next week's total. The leaders become quite resourceful in their attempts to gain the coveted honour. Leaders encourage weaker members to put forth every effort. 'I will help you if you will try,' says the leader, and it often

happens that a boy will make known his difficulties to his leader when he would not approach his teacher.

The leaders of the middle and upper classes meet the head master every month. Sometimes the deputies are invited to attend. At this parliament matters pertaining to the duties of the leaders are discussed. The following subjects have recently been discussed: How to keep the Position of Leader; How to gain Special Marks; How to encourage Boys and Girls to do their best for the Patrol; Patrol Meetings; How to deal with Difficulties. These meetings show conclusively that the children are daily putting into operation those fine underlying principles which go to form character.

N.B.—The two articles on Scouting are reprinted from the *Scouts' Headquarters Gazette*, by kind permission of the Editor.

XIX

SCOUTING IN A PREPARATORY SCHOOL

By the late L. HELBERT, M.A., West Downs, Winchester

S the Scout organisation one that is appropriate to preparatory-school conditions? Is there room for scouting in a time-table already notoriously overcrowded? Have the boys time for it? Have the masters time for it? Is scouting itself profitable to this type of boy? Is he or anybody else going to benefit by his spending time over it? These are only a few of the questions that will occur to a head master who is invited to introduce scouting into his school; they are not easy to answer, because preparatory schools vary so widely in size, methods, and equipment. All we can do here is to jot down a few rough notes as to our own experiences, hoping that they may be of some use to other schools, even where the conditions are not exactly similar to our own.

Let us presuppose, then, a school of sixty to eighty boarders (ages from $8\frac{1}{2}$ to $13\frac{1}{2}$) and a staff of some ten to twelve patriots of uncertain age, knowing little or nothing of scouting but ready to endure all things and wear all things—even a scout hat—for the sake of the school. The boys are being prepared for Osborne and the public schools, and their work and games are mainly organised with that end in view: they sleep in large, open

dormitories, which, with certain necessary limitations, are controlled by the boys themselves.

Is scouting appropriate to the conditions of such a school ?

Here let us state at once that when we talk about taking up scouting, we imply the introduction, as a *sine qua non*, of the patrol system ; without it, scouting may take hold for a time, owing to abnormal conditions, or its novelty, or the enthusiasm of a master : but it will not last. With the patrol system firmly established, and a sympathetic staff ready to face the uphill work—and it is uphill work—there is a fair chance that the troop may come to maturity and do work that is worth while to all concerned.

We started here with a giant flourish soon after the outbreak of war ; we happen to be on a military highway ; soldiers, ordnance transport were passing and repassing the grounds day and night ; half our staff had joined the Colours ; games were out of the picture ; the boys were desperately excited, and scouting came as a godsend. It so happened that one of our own masters became adjutant to a regiment close by ; the scouts were employed by him as orderlies, and the troop became 'part of the show.' Anybody would imagine from reading the account of our beginnings that we were working from the first entirely on the patrol system, and the scouting was firmly established. This was not the case. What was really keeping us alive was the novelty of the thing ; a week's sheer bliss in camp ; and a thrilling inspection by B. P. himself. Then came the reaction, and scouting would have drooped and probably died had it not been for a twenty-four hours' visit from the ' Beloved Captain ' of all scouts, the late Roland Phillipps : he galvanised the patrol

leaders into fresh activity, and stiffened us up just when we were beginning to lose heart.

The three points which became clear were these:

(1) In a school where the dormitories are the real centre of the life and set the tone, it is essential that the patrols should keep together in the dormitories and the patrol leaders and seconds lead upstairs as well as down.

(2) Some sort of standing inter-patrol competition is a very great advantage for keeping the patrol spirit alive.

(3) A Court of Honour, whose business is administrative as well as judicial, is absolutely essential.

Scouting is a game, and we do not propose to dwell at length on the connection between it and class-room work. Three points are perhaps worth noting:—

(1) To force scouting terminology into the class-room is fatal; such admonitions as 'a good scout sits up,' 'a good scout would have known his grammar,' are enough to kill scouting outright.

(2) Any amount of good scouting can be got out of a small boy, a Caesar, and a Latin dictionary; don't label it as such; let him discover for himself that he has been scouting all the time.

(3) The best of all teachers is the lucky man who can bring the play-spirit into the class-room door without driving discipline out of the window: but he is born lucky, not made. Beware of imitations.

The effect of scouting upon organised games seems to work out somewhat in this way: It is

very hard on a games master, who is expected to win all his matches, not to give him first call upon the playtime of his top game at least; and I do not think he can be blamed if he asks for six days a week. If, on the other hand, you make up your mind not to allow the matches to dominate the games, then he can spare you a couple of days with ease; the result will be a series of healthy reactions all round; the 'rotter who cannot play games' (but he can teach you to track, and Morse, and build a jolly good bridge) is a rotter no longer; the grouser who is sick of everlasting football has ceased to grouse, and comes back to his game as fresh as paint; and the cricket enthusiast is more enthusiastic than ever.

Finally, as regards the age of the boys. It has slowly but surely been borne in upon us that the younger half of the school is not old enough for systematic patrol work, and spoils the game for the older half. Either the older ones have to go slow to save the younger or the younger have to overstrain to keep pace with the older. The solution of this difficulty suddenly appeared in the shape of the Wolf Cubs' Handbook; the reorganisation of the wolf cubs with their most attractive games and badges exactly meets the case of the nine- and ten-year-old schoolboy, and several of our scouts applied for leave to resign their tenderfoot badges, etc., and to enter as cubs.

Apart from the effect of scouting upon work and games, is there actually enough time available to make it worth while to take it up seriously? The answer to this depends upon the view of scouting taken by the head master. If scouting is to consist merely of an occasional field day in the country, the boys' work will not be affected, and, as we have

already said, his games may profit by it; if it is to include regular practice in scouting exercises, time must be allotted :—

(1) To the training of patrol leaders by specialists; (2) to the training of patrols by patrol leaders; (3) to general practice for second-class, first-class, and King's scout work. We have found that two evening periods a week is the minimum possible for this side of scouting; as soon as ever we cut these down, enthusiasm for the stiffer side of scouting begins to wane. I am afraid that it must be confessed that a school which specialises in scholarship is not likely to be able to spare enough time for scout exercises; and as far as we have been able to judge, scouting without regular exercises is hardly worth the candle.

The masters, too, will have something to say on this point. The difficulty for them is not primarily one of time so much as training—the same old difficulty which faces us whenever we attempt to reform education. We have not been trained in our generation to use our hands; and to have to do so now means real hard work and a considerable expenditure of precious time. There is no comparison, as far as work for the master is concerned, between organised games and scouting. The latter makes a far greater demand upon his time and patience; cricket and football are second nature to him; a few lists are put up by the games master and the rest is easy. Compare this with a programme of scout exercises with most of which we are entirely unfamiliar, and which cover an alarmingly wide field of work; the comparison is anything but favourable to scouting in the eyes of an overworked assistant master. And that is not all.

We have found that if the work for proficiency

badges is to prosper, a certain number of masters must be always ready for the purpose of passing scouts in their tests; if the scout is constantly put off, he will tend to 'chuck it,' and chucking-pox is one of the most infectious diseases; there is no side of scouting which demands more time and patience than the ever-recurring 'When can you pass me, sir?' from the badge hunters.

Whether the staff are prepared to take on an added duty which requires the sacrifice of most of their spare time as well as the patience of Job, depends upon local conditions. If they are not prepared to do so, scouting had much better not be attempted.

Not everybody believes in giving responsibility to small boys, but the vast majority of teachers are agreed upon its educational value; and certainly, if it is to be given to the boy of eleven to thirteen, there is no better way than through the scout patrol; it is not by any means the patrol leader alone who gains: a success won by a scout in any department of school life is a success for his patrol, a failure is a failure for his patrol. For some time past we have adopted (from other schools) the system of awarding weekly patrol stars for smartness, in dormitory, on parade, in the changing-rooms, etc.

At the end of each term the winning patrol has its name inscribed on a board presented for the purpose by the late Captain Phillipps. Sometimes, it is true, the patrol leaders themselves seem to hang fire in a most disappointing way: sometimes they overdo their job: much more often the responsibility is the making of them; one case in particular is worth quoting. A patrol leader was bitten with astronomy; he obtained instruction for his star-man's badge from a master, and

then proceeded, to our astonishment, to instruct his patrol on his own account; he finished by discoursing to them and incidentally to the whole school, without a trace of affectation or bravado, on a series of astronomical lantern slides. This boy was, by the way, one of the two best footballers in the school. The same thing may be seen going on in a lesser degree on any scouting evening in winter; each patrol or part of a patrol takes possession of a room, and in it an older boy will be teaching a younger boy knots, signalling, life-saving, and so on.

Surely there can be no type of boy for whom this sort of training is inappropriate.

And here we may add a word on the actual exercises; they all include a certain amount of manual work—just what we are always wanting for our schools—and, what is more timely still, they give the small boys exactly the amount of elementary science which they are ready to digest. All of us have listened to many discussions on science teaching, extremists are busy on both sides, but for those who believe in moderation in these matters, what can be more admirably restrained and sane than the scientific training which a scout imbibes under a good scoutmaster and keen patrol leaders?

We append, for those who may care to read it, the winter routine into which we stumbled after two years' trial of scouting:—

Monday afternoon.—Jobs. These jobs vary from week to week. They have included such things as collecting cases from grocers in the town and taking them on trek-cart to a war supply depot; constructing a fence round the field; digging potato patches; cutting fire-

wood for the house; constructing steps down banks; going down to motor works and passing for the engineer's badge, and so on. It is always open to a patrol to play a game if they prefer it.

Monday evening.—Court of Honour. Attended by officers and patrol leaders. Weekly reports commented on. Routine for week settled; possible jobs announced; questions asked and answered, etc.

Tuesday.—On alternate Tuesday evenings during one term an empty house (their new headquarters) was put in order; *i.e.* they distempered walls and scrubbed floors with varying success.

Wednesday.—Weather permitting, out into the country for a long game; occasionally against some very keen scouts at a neighbouring school, otherwise amongst ourselves.

These games are invaluable for health and training. They get the boys into different air and on to a different soil; and they give them a chance of getting lost; it is not necessary to send out search parties after them. On one afternoon two large patrols went off, under the command of a patrol leader, played their game two miles away, rallied at a prearranged time, marched home 'on their own,' and turned up punctually for tea. (Ages eleven to thirteen.)

It will greatly help matters if, towards the end of a term, the officers can outline a game to introduce as many badges as possible. Such games have been held here, thirty scouts playing on each side. The preparations were made and the game carried out, including the dinner, without assistance of any kind what-

ever, and such a game may be strongly recommended, provided that the scouts are constantly reminded to prepare for it.

Thursday.—Fifty minutes in the evening for practising second-class or badges.

Saturday.—After football, pow-wow, at which scout law is said, the week's log read out, patrol stars presented on parade, badges given, and letters from old boys read out.

Sunday.—Patrol leaders complete and hand in weekly reports. In the afternoon a few informal exercises are undertaken by individual scouts.

This routine still leaves the afternoons of Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday for football, and Friday for shooting and boxing.

The patrols go on duty in rotation, for a week at a time ; the patrol on duty takes in the morning letters, collects letters for the post, keeps the weather report, helps to lay the breakfast and dinner table, supervises music practices, ' carries on ' after dinner every day when the boys are changing for games or scout parade (this duty was formerly undertaken by a master), is responsible for the arrangement of chairs, etc., at all functions, and provides an orderly for the scoutmaster.

XX

THE SCHOOL AND THE PUBLIC MUSEUM

Salford Scheme for Organised Visits of School Children to the Museums and Art Galleries

By R. MARTIN, Secretary, Salford Education Committee

ALFORD is fortunate in possessing Public Museums and Art Galleries which have been fostered and developed during many years by an enlightened Committee, and an enthusiastic and gifted Curator whose reputation stands very high in his profession.

Arising out of a desire to encourage and develop the interests of the school children in the excellent and well-arranged collections, a scheme was arranged in 1915, under the auspices of the Education Committee and the Museums and Libraries Committee, and with the hearty concurrence of His Majesty's Inspector.

An Advisory Committee was appointed, consisting of four representatives nominated by each of the teachers' associations, namely, The National Union of Teachers, The Head Teachers' Association, and the Assistant Teachers' Association, together with the Education Committee's officers and the Chief Librarian and Curator of the Museum.

The adoption of the scheme is purely optional in the schools, but for the past two or three years it has been found that every school in the borough has participated in the arrangement.

The following is a description of the scheme, viz. :—

Each year a competent person is selected to prepare a lecture, having definite reference to a group of exhibits in the museums, and illustrated by lantern slides specially made from the objects in the collections to be dealt with.

The whole body of the teachers employed in the schools of the borough is invited to the inaugural (evening) lecture; this lecture is subsequently printed and a copy supplied to each teacher in every school. The following supplements are added to the printed lecture, viz. :—

(*a*) A list of books suitable for further study by teachers and scholars. In the event of any selected books not being available at the various branch libraries in the borough, the Libraries Committee undertake to supply the same.

(*b*) A series of suggestive questions bearing on the lecture.

The lecture is subsequently read or otherwise delivered in the school by a member of the staff, and illustrated by lantern slides, of which duplicate sets are prepared and circulated throughout the schools according to plan. In schools which do not possess a lantern, arrangements are made to supply a lantern and requisites for the demonstration.

Whilst it is desired to afford the advantages to as many children as possible, it has been found necessary to restrict the visits to the museums to children in Standards V. to VII., and to limit the parties to not more than thirty. On the visit the teacher in charge is advised to repeat the substance of the lecture with the actual objects on view.

For convenience the special objects to be seen

at the museums are gathered together into a special room, as far as practicable, and are clearly indicated by reference labels, as used for the lantern slides. Teachers are at liberty, if time permits, to allow the children to visit any part of the museum.

The children participating in the visits are encouraged to make notes of their observations, and to write an essay describing their visit to the museum and the objects they have seen.

The Advisory Committee in their last report state that the scheme continues to be appreciated by both children and teachers, and to prove of much value in widening the activities of the school.

The Curator of the Museums and Art Galleries reports that the scheme has worked quite smoothly so far as the actual visits are concerned, and that the conduct and discipline of the children have been excellent.

There is every reason to be satisfied that the scheme has popularised the Museums and Art Galleries and, stimulated by the special instruction given and the illustrations used, has opened new interests which are likely to bear fruit in after life to the scholars.

As showing the range of the scheme during the past five years, the following information is appended as to the titles of the lectures and the number of children attending the Museums and Art Galleries, *viz.* :—

Year.	Title.	Number of Children visiting Museums.
1915	Some Interesting Birds	6370
1916	Pictures	6687
1917	The Story of Salford	6104
1918	Primitive Warfare and the Chase (Australia and Melanesia).	5784
1919	Primitive Warfare and the Chase (Polynesia, Micronesia, etc.).	5665

For the present session (1920) it has been arranged to increase the scope of the scheme, and to run two separate lectures and visits: one entitled 'Some Interesting Mammals,' and the second 'Household Vessels of Many Lands and Many Periods.' These two lectures involve visits to separate museums.

As a development of the above scheme, arrangements have also been made for organised visits of school children to Manchester Cathedral, and for this work several teachers have volunteered to act as guides; they first receive from the Chairman of the Elementary Education Committee (the Rev. Canon Scott) the benefit of a personally conducted examination of the Cathedral and a detailed description of the points of interest.

A further development of the scheme is under consideration, so as to include visits to other places of special interest in the district.

XXI

THE SCHOOL AND THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

Some account of the Halifax Scheme

By EDWARD GREEN, Chief Librarian, Halifax

'I want to see an increasing use of books, and I should like to see in every school something like a real library. When I go into a school and see no sign of a good book, I begin to doubt whether we understand even the alphabet of the subject.'—H. A. L. FISHER.

HIS passage, from a speech delivered by the President of the Board of Education at Southport, provides an appropriate opening to the general subject of library work with children. Hitherto there has been an appalling neglect of children's reading on the part of official educationists, but in a small way, and limited chiefly by their restricted and inadequate funds, public libraries have made some attempt to grapple with the question. In the past the children of the elementary schools have been taught, more or less successfully, how to read, and possibly to some extent what to read, but there has been no adequate supply of suitable books, apart from school readers, provided, with the result that many adults trained in the elementary schools are largely ignorant of, and unable to use successfully, the wealth of knowledge to be found in books and libraries. Now,

however, the advantage and necessity of proper provision in the shape of specially selected books appears to be becoming increasingly recognised, and towards this end the benefit of co-operation between education and public library committees is being more largely sought.

In the recent valuable reports on adult education the recommendation that the Education Authorities should take over and control libraries has not met with universal acceptance; indeed the members of the Library Association are, for the most part, against such a policy, though one and all are quite willing to co-operate in every possible way. Without, however, discussing the pros and cons of this aspect of the matter, the present chapter is concerned chiefly with describing the aims and results of the Halifax scheme of children's libraries—a scheme that has excited great interest not only in this country but also abroad.

In the first place it is necessary to say that at Halifax the education and library committees are now associated, though the latter is still a statutory committee, raising its funds from the public library rate. Prior to 1906, for convenience, the library was grouped with the markets and parks committee, but by resolution of the council, and with the consent of all parties, a new grouping—education and library—was agreed upon. From that date a great development in all branches of work has taken place, but it is only as it affects children and young people that we are now concerned. The first act of the co-operating committees was to formulate a scheme of juvenile libraries in the schools, and towards this end a special sub-committee, consisting of six head teachers, a lady member of the education committee, and the

public librarian, was appointed. The latter is the organiser and supervisor of the technical side of the scheme. It was arranged for a proportion of the teachers to retire annually, but before doing so each one has the right to nominate and vote for his successor. At a later date, when the evening continuation schools were brought into the scheme, additional representatives from those schools were appointed. This committee meets quarterly at the central public library, and usually one full afternoon is sufficient to transact the necessary business.

At the beginning it was thought that transference of the existing juvenile stock of books from the public libraries would be good policy, but it was quickly discovered that both in quantity and quality that procedure left much to be desired. Then it was that an entirely new and adequate stock was decided upon, and in building it up, and in allocation, the following procedure was adopted. First it was determined to deal with Standards IV. and upwards only, to get together what is known as a 'Standard List of Books for School Libraries,' and base the initial stock of each separate school library on the numbers on the registers of the classes dealt with. Specimens of every book to be included in the 'standard list' were procured, at the expense of the education committee, and each book was reviewed by one or more members of the school libraries committee, a written and signed review being submitted before acceptance or rejection. In case of acceptance a typed copy of the review is pasted inside the cover of each book, and the volume is then shelved in a room set apart at the public library where any teacher may inspect the same before ordering from the standard list already mentioned. In these reviews not

only subject-matter but also composition, type, and illustrations are considered, with the result that only the best and most suitable editions are secured. The following is a specimen of a review:—

LE FEUVRE AMY, 'Brownie.'

A simple story of three interesting children. The two types—the highly imaginative and the practical—are cleverly portrayed. The numerous scrapes into which these children fall, their sufferings and their fortunate deliverances, are sure to meet with the sympathies of young readers.

The building up of the initial stock of books has, of course, on account of expense, been gradual, but adequate collections for each of the fifty departments of day schools, several evening schools, as well as some higher schools, now exist. During recent years it has simply been a case of renewal with either the same or other titles, taken from the standard list, according to the choice of the head teacher in each school. The total stock of books in the elementary schools now numbers upwards of 10,000 volumes, the stock of a small school being about 80 volumes, whilst a large one may have 500 or more.

At this point it may be useful to say that the general administrative work, such as ordering new books, cataloguing, labelling, stamping, numbering, and despatch to the schools, is under the supervision of the public librarian and his staff, and is carried out at the public library, where a card catalogue of the entire stock, showing exactly what each school library has, is kept. As the books become soiled, dilapidated, and worn out, or need re-binding, they are despatched to the public library, where the necessary attention is given.

In the case of renewals the librarian notifies the head teachers, asking the latter to make a new selection from the standard list. These new selections are then tabulated and an order list embodying them is forwarded monthly by the librarian to the secretary to the education committee, who submits it to that body. The books, when passed, are ordered to be delivered to the librarian, who deals with them as already mentioned.

In the inauguration of the scheme the policy of permanent or circulating collections of books was discussed, and after a vote of the heads of all departments concerned the former was decided upon. The arguments in its favour were that it allowed for individual choice of books, according to the taste and locality of each school, and that it saved carriage, besides securing sufficient variety, as each set of books is new to the changing scholars who pass through the classes. Again, as books become worn out, which they do in three or four years, it is not necessary to replace with the same titles, and further variety is thus secured if desired.

The shelving of the books is accomplished by a series of boxes, specially designed, each capable of being set on end to form two shelves, and holding fifty volumes each. These boxes may be arranged as in the elastic-bookcase system; in fact they are so arranged at Halifax. The pre-war price was about 7s. 6d. each.

The question as to whether the boxes in each school library should be assembled together in one room set apart for a library, or distributed in different class-rooms, has been settled by adopting both methods. Some head teachers believe in one definite point for housing the books, so that

the whole resources of the library are available for choice by all the scholars using them—a method favoured by the writer—whilst others, especially those in charge of large schools, prefer the class-room method. Both systems, however, appear to yield good results if carefully worked by interested teachers.

In the actual issuing of books to children for home reading, a day (or days) is usually set apart for the purpose, and each child returns his or her book, which is checked off before another is issued. If a volume is not read in the prescribed time, it is a good policy to insist upon its return for re-entry, as this procedure reduces losses. In beginning the scheme at Halifax a card-charging, or ticket-and-tray method, was introduced whereby each reader has a ruled card, bearing his name and address, with lines below for receiving any memoranda considered desirable. A corresponding pocket or envelope, bearing the book number, author and title, and ruled to take the reader's ticket number and date, is prepared, and the union of the card and pocket indicates that a certain reader has a particular book. These pockets, with readers' cards inside, are then arranged by book number, placed in the tray, and may be easily referred to when exchanges are effected.

Another method of issue, favoured by some teachers, is to have a ruled sheet, with dated columns, and the readers' names running down the left-hand side. As a book is issued the number is entered opposite the reader's name and accordingly cancelled on its return. There are points for and against either method, but with careful working both have been found quite satisfactory. The following are the instructions (based upon those

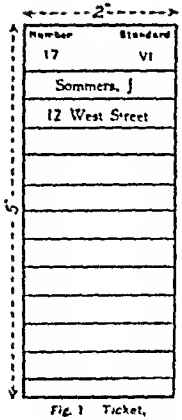

Fig. 1 Ticket, representing reader.

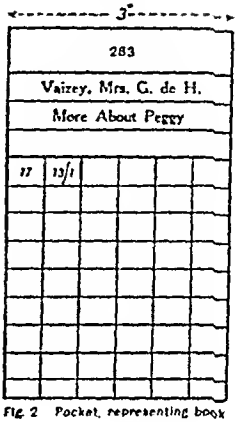

Fig. 2 Pocket, representing book

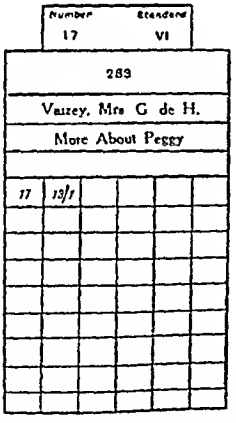

Fig 3 Conjoined ticket and pocket shewing reader No. 17 has book No 283.

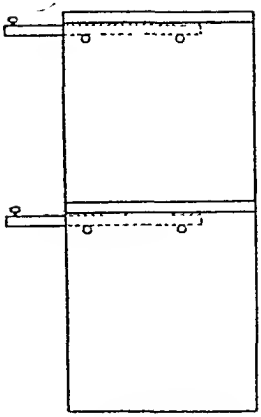

Fig 4. Book-box open—side elevation.

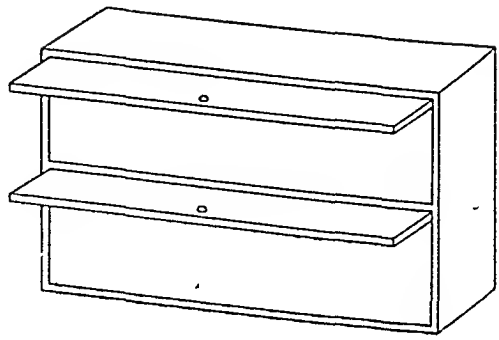

Fig 6 Book box

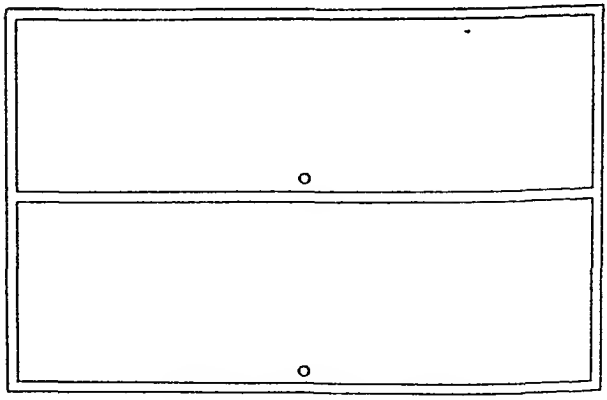

Fig 5. Book-box closed—front elevation.

adopted for the Croydon School libraries) issued for working each school library:—

(1) The card-issuing system will be adopted. Book pockets or envelopes, readers' cards, guides and tray for containing these will be provided.
(2) Arrange books in order of book numbers.
(3) Arrange pockets in the same order, placing them in the tray behind the guide lettered 'in.'
(4) To issue a book write the borrower's name on the ticket, take the pocket corresponding to the book desired, put the ticket in the pocket and write the date on the outside of the pocket in the left-hand column. Lay the pocket aside until the issues for the day are completed, then arrange the pockets in order of book numbers. On the monthly-report card opposite the proper week enter the number of issues. Now put the book pockets behind the guide lettered 'out.' When there are already pockets representing books out behind this guide, insert the new issues among them in proper order.
(5) When a book is returned, find its pocket, take the ticket out, and (unless reissued at once to another borrower) put the pocket behind the 'in' guide.
(6) Keep tickets of borrowers who have no books out for the time being in front of the tray, arranged in alphabetical order.
(7) Occasionally go through the tickets for 'overdues' and secure their immediate return. The borrowers' tickets are ruled for memoranda—*e.g.* 'suspended for bad usage,' etc., and may, if wished, be used for keeping a record of a pupil's reading.
(8) It is important that books with loose leaves or sections should not be allowed to circulate. A loose leaf may be pasted on, but there is a right and a wrong way of doing this. If you will call at Belle Vue the librarian will be pleased to show you the right way.
(9) At present the books are to be issued to Standard IV. and upwards only.

(10) The School Libraries Sub-Committee will be glad to receive suggestions for new books from head teachers and school librarians. These suggestions should be sent to the Secretary, Education and Public Libraries Committee, West House, Halifax.

(11) It will be a convenience if the following particulars are given of each book, in the order stated: (*a*) Author, (*b*) Title, (*c*) Publisher, (*d*) Price, (*e*) Remarks. (*c*) and (*d*) are not necessary, but if known will save time. By (*e*), Remarks, is meant any information as to the character and contents of the book which will guide the Sub-Committee as to its value and suitability for school library purposes. In all cases, whether such information is given or not, it should be stated if the book is suggested from personal knowledge (P), or from reading a review (R), or on hearsay (H).

The letters in brackets, if placed against the entry, will be understood in the senses indicated. The aim of the Sub-Committee is to include only such books as reach a high standard in style, accuracy, and interest.

It may be objected that in the absence of a complete catalogue of the books in the school libraries one may be suggesting books already possessed. That is so, but such suggestions will not therefore be without value; they will furnish useful guides as to the books it is desirable to duplicate.

(12) A book monitor should be appointed for each class.

(13) A catalogue of the books should be hung in each class-room.

(14) A time should be fixed for children to consult the catalogue.

(15) Each child should have a slip of paper on which is written reader's name and the numbers of the books desired in order of preference. This slip should be placed inside the book brought in.

(16) On the day fixed for issuing books the book monitor will collect the books in the playground. During

the morning or afternoon he or she will first take out the slips on which are written the number of the books desired, then arrange all the books in their proper order in the boxes. The slips will then be examined and the book desired by each reader found, as far as possible, the slips being then placed in the books about to be issued. The books will then be placed on the teacher's desk.

(17) At the close of school the books will be distributed to the children whose names are on the slips.

(18) The teachers should occasionally have a chat with the children on the books in the Library.

The question of re-binding and repairs is a matter of some moment, not only on account of expense but also because of the loss of use of volumes temporarily out of commission. Added to this is the lack of technical knowledge of those directly responsible for the weekly distribution of books. As is well known by librarians, if a book is allowed to circulate too long it may become so dilapidated as to become quite past re-binding, and there is also a right and a wrong way of performing such minor repairs as fastening loose leaves. Those who have not done this work, or seen it done, are often responsible for the plastering of books with gum and paste in such a manner as to make future repairs impossible.

Originally at Halifax new books were distributed to the schools in the publishers' covers, but it was quickly found that the flimsy materials used, together with machine sewing, were altogether too frail to stand the heavy wear and tear the books were necessarily subjected to. Consequently, re-binding was frequent and somewhat expensive. As an alternative, re-binding from the sheet in strong quarter pigskin was tried, but then it was found that the bindings often outlasted the books, most of which varied considerably in qualities of paper used. Another point, and not a small one either, against re-binding in uniform covers is the non-attractiveness as

compared with the variety, often pictorial, secured in publishers' boards. Finally it was discovered that the practice of re-sewing—strong hand-sewing—and replacing in publishers' covers, after strengthening the same, provided the most satisfactory results. No doubt in the future, as the demand increases, publishers may think it worth while to issue editions more suitably bound for school libraries than is at the present the case. But this is just a part of the whole question of library editions which needs the attention of librarians, publishers, and others.

The question of infection by books is a very real bogey with many people, but in the Halifax School library scheme, as is the case in connection with the adult libraries, a special arrangement with the Medical Officer of Health ensures that every book which has been in an infected home is taken possession of by the sanitary inspector, and either stoved or destroyed as the Medical Officer determines. Those volumes which are eventually returned to the schools are first sent to the public library, which is the clearing-house for re-distribution.

The loss of books in working a school-library scheme is largely determined by the care of those responsible for distribution to individual readers. At Halifax each head teacher is responsible to the Education Committee for the books and apparatus in his or her school, and with a few exceptions—due to carelessness—no unreasonable losses have occurred. Some loss, of course, is inevitable, and this should be, and is, regarded as a legitimate charge for the benefits obtained. Much, however, may be done to minimise losses by methodical and interested supervision and working. Another factor in keeping down losses is the quarterly report submitted by each school to the juvenile

libraries committee. This contains the following information :—

This form should be completed and forwarded to the Education Offices on the last Friday in March, June, September, and December.

COUNTY BOROUGH OF HALIFAX
EDUCATION COMMITTEE

School Library Report. Quarter ended.....19..
.....School.....Department.
.....
Readers' Tickets in Force.....
Total Issue for Quarter.....
No. of Transfer Tickets issued during the Quarter.....
Particulars of Books lost (No., Author, and Title):—
.....
.....
Books previously reported lost and since found (No., Author, and Title) :—
.....
.....
Books in hands of Sanitary Authority (No., Author, and Title) :—
.....
.....

NOTE.—Dilapidated and worn-out Books may be sent to the Chief Librarian, Central Library, at any time, and each parcel should contain a list of the volumes sent.

Remarks.
.....
.....
.....
.....
Signed.....
Head Teacher.

There yet remains to say something about the expense attached to the formation and upkeep of the scheme. Without quoting any exact figures, it may be stated that originally the Halifax Education Committee decided upon a gradual building up, and paid the cost of all equipment—books, boxes, stationery, etc., as recommended by the juvenile libraries committee. For several years past £200 annually has been voted to the work, and this sum has been sufficient to cover the cost of renewals and other charges. Regarding the benefits derived. First and foremost is the greater intelligence, increased vocabulary, and wider outlook in consequence of having access to really suitable and adequate collections of books. Then the general reading among child readers has increased from 27,000 issues annually in 1906, when the adult public libraries were the only distributing centres of children's reading, to 100,000 annually since the centres were more numerous. But the full benefits do not end there, because in practice it is found that many of the books taken home by children are also read by their parents, and in this way the libraries serve a double purpose and are, no doubt, doing something in promoting, in a general way, that adult education now so freely advocated.

Yet another link in this co-operative scheme of library work is provided in the library lessons to leaving scholars. Before children finally leave the elementary schools each one is given a transfer. ticket for use at the adult public library, but before the ticket is brought into use the child is introduced to, and instructed in, the use of the library. Usually about a dozen children, in charge of a teacher, are included in such a visit. A brief preliminary chat on libraries in general,

and the local library in particular, how it is provided, financed, etc., forms a suitable introduction to the lesson. Then the arrangement and classification of the books on the shelves and the use of the catalogues are explained. When the children are familiar with these details they are tested in finding particular authors, subjects, and books, and finally the teacher gives a little chat on certain selected books, and also some instruction in the use of works of a reference nature. The whole object of the library lesson is, of course, to secure continuity in reading, and to discover to the children the great resources available in a well-stocked and well-arranged public library. From a recent examination it was found that 80 per cent. of the transfer tickets issued by the teachers in the schools were received at the central public library and its branches. The importance of this branch of library work can scarcely be overestimated, because in after life, when the schoolmaster is not accessible, the visit to the public library may be remembered and suggest an avenue of information and help that might otherwise be overlooked.

XXII

THE STAFFORDSHIRE RURAL LIBRARIES

Adapted from Sir G. Balfour's Reports by H. Middleton

A VALUABLE movement in connection with school libraries was started in 1916 by the Staffordshire Education Committee. It had for its aim the supplying of books to rural districts too far removed from a borough to benefit by a municipal library.

The scheme was greatly helped forward by a grant of £5000 from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees to cover the cost for the first five years. In a comparatively short time, Sir Graham Balfour as Director of Education organised the work and a start was made. It was decided that at first certain schools only should be selected for the experiment, namely, those which would be most likely to benefit by and develop the scheme. It was also agreed that the scheme should only apply to children over the age of eleven, the books already in use in the schools being considered sufficient to supply the needs of the younger children.

The head teachers of the selected schools were invited to recommend books, and the first purchases were mainly chosen from the lists which they supplied. The central library was established at Stafford, a partially finished technical school

being temporarily used. Here the books were despatched to the schools and exchanged when required. Each of the fifty-six selected departments received a box of books in the autumn of 1916, and twenty-nine of them were returned and renewed early in 1917.

The boxes used were constructed of three-ply wood, fairly light and very durable; each was capable of holding thirty books. The first consignment of books comprised twenty for children and ten for adults, for the scheme was intended to benefit not only the children of the schools, but also the adults of the villages. Thus, in addition to fiction, works on poetry, drama, art, philosophy, sociology, science, agriculture, and textile manufactures were included. The school was to assume its rightful position as the centre for the intellectual life of the community.

In 1917 the total number of books in this rural library was 5788, of which 3844 were for children, 705 were senior fiction, and 1239 were general literature for adults. Each head teacher is made responsible for recording the issues of each book, and these records are sent to Stafford when the books are returned. They are there tabulated and form a basis for information as to the types of books most in demand. In the first year a box of books was retained, on the average, about seven months and three weeks at its local centre. The 5460 books in circulation were issued 48,044 times.

The demand for books far exceeded the supply, so in addition to the circulating library a small stationary library was founded at each school; this contained twenty books for children, the books being chosen by the head teacher from a list sent from the central library at Stafford.

In April 1917, 126 more departments were added, making 182, and in the following year the number was brought up to 198, exclusive of ten evening schools which were also incorporated into the system. That the experiment has been a great success there is no doubt. Good books, literature of all kinds, have been read by many who would otherwise never have seen them; this is particularly true in the case of the adult readers.

In a report on the work Sir Graham Balfour writes: 'How far the circulating libraries have been appreciated or used by adult inhabitants of the villages other than teachers it is very difficult to say, as in a number of cases head teachers have adopted the experiment of issuing to the children books more suited for their parents. Thus I found that H. de B. Gibbins's *Industrial History* had been issued to ten pupils, four of whom were thirteen years of age and six not more than eleven; but it does not follow that that book had found no competent reader. Some fish can only be caught by throwing a fly over them incessantly. Teachers differ very much in their methods, and some apparently have paid little or no attention to any one but their own pupils. As might have been anticipated, these instances have been found rather among head mistresses than among men. Special care was given to getting modern books dealing with agriculture and country life suitable for farmers and others, but the circulation of these has been unfortunately small. It is probable that few farmers ever realised that there were any books in the school library which possessed any interest or value for them; it is possible that some of them had no means of knowing.

'As to the tastes of other adult readers, opinions

differ. One very capable master explained his rather meagre results by saying that most of his parents were miners and that miners did not read much; at other centres the North Staffordshire Miners' Higher Education Movement and its lectures led the adult readers to ask for difficult books and to devour them eagerly. A few head mistresses regarded the books as possessions almost too precious to be allowed out of their sight, or to run the danger of being dirtied. A few, a very few readers recalled Andrew Lang's "robustious Philistine" who marked his place in a book by keeping it open with the leg of a chair. But, on the whole, extremely good care has been taken of the books, and even in the bad cases it is dirt rather than destruction of which we have had to complain. And dirt, if evenly distributed over the pages, is at any rate a sign that the book has been read.'

XXIII

THE SCHOOL JOURNEY

By G. G. LEWIS, Ex-Chairman, School Journey Association

A SCHOOL journey consists of a visit by a party of school children for a week (or more) to some centre away from home, for a special course of education 'in the field' under the direction of their own teachers. Day visits to places near the school are sometimes called 'school journeys,' but the Board of Education officially terms them 'educational visits.'

The school journey proper is something more ambitious, as may be gathered from the following list of 'aims and objects' culled from one of the programmes:—

(1) To bring teacher and scholar into closer touch.
(2) To foster habits of self-reliance and good fellowship.
(3) To study Nature in the field.
(4) To acquire the habit of learning from the world at large as well as from books.
(5) To extend our knowledge of mankind.
(6) To visit places associated with memories of great men.

(7) To observe forms of labour connected with agriculture.
(8) To obtain rock and plant specimens unobtainable near London.
(9) To gain health and strength from a stay in the purer air of the country.
(10) To learn how to spend a holiday happily and intelligently.

It will be noted that the search for health commonly associated with a town child's visit to the country does not receive first place. Neither does the acquisition of new percepts or knowledge, for though the child gains enormously on these two counts, it is found that the moral gain is greater even than the mental or physical. The better understanding between teacher, child, and parent, the revelation and awakening of hidden powers in the child, the necessity of give and take in communal life, the broader outlook acquired, supply a sure foundation for good character building on the return to school.

Taking the moral, mental, and physical gains into consideration, H.M. Inspectors probably do not overestimate when they declare that a week's school journey on right lines is equivalent in value to at least five or six weeks in the class-room.

THE SCHOOL JOURNEY IN LONDON

London was the cradle and has been the chief home of the school journey in elementary schools. The need of the child of the crowded streets of the metropolis was great; the higher London salaries attracted enlightened and enthusiastic teachers, and the London Education Authorities have usually been in the van of progress. And

so we find young teachers pioneering the school journey in their holiday time on their own initiative as far back as 1896. During the next ten years they experimented, free from any official rules or regulations, but with much sympathy and encouragement, until the Board of Education allowed instruction in the field to count for grant. At once the L.C.C. took advantage of this permission, bringing no pressure to bear on teachers to undertake school journeys, but encouraging those who did so; the result was that in 1914 over one hundred schools took parties away to Epping Forest, Hastings, Dovercourt, the Isle of Wight, Malvern, Stratford-on-Avon, Chepstow, Abergavenny, Brecon, Hay, The Peak, and even to places as far distant as Cornwall and North Wales.

The war reduced the numbers gradually to a couple of dozen, but a few indomitables kept the flag flying and the L.C.C. could not find it in their hearts to say their enthusiasm nay. Then came the epoch-making Education Bill, which not only allowed L.E.A.'s to finance school journeys completely but offered Board of Education grants to cover one half of the cost. Public opinion is not yet ripe for the full cost to be borne by the State, but in 1919 one hundred schools were aided with grants from the L.C.C., and in 1920 the number was trebled.

The following extract from the School Journey Association pamphlet shows how the scheme is worked :—

1. The travelling expenses of the teachers (including the cost of one journey for making preliminary arrangements) and the cost of their board and lodging will be borne by the Council. The maximum payment for board and lodging will be two guineas a week each teacher.

2. Schools will be classified according to financial position of parents. Grants will be made at the following rates per child per week :

A	B	C	D
15s.	11s. 3d.	7s. 6d.	3s. 9d.

3. Maximum number on which L.C.C. will pay :

Grade I. (under 200).	Grade II. (200-400).	Grade III. (400-600).	Grade III.b (over 600).
20	40	60	80

4. Duration of school journey limited to a fortnight.
5. All travelling expenses (except those of teachers) will be borne by the school.
6. Balance-sheet for each journey to be presented to the L.C.C.
7. Grant not exceeding £5 for each journey for special equipment.
8. Salary of supply teacher paid by L.C.C.
9. One teacher for each twenty children, but at least two allowed for any party.

THE SCHOOL JOURNEY ASSOCIATION

A word must be said about the S.J.A. composed almost entirely of teachers actively engaged on the work. Any one who organises and conducts a satisfactory school journey is bound to be an enthusiast and a person of parts, and the Association has gathered to itself some of the keenest teachers the metropolis possesses. It early succeeded in enlisting the sympathy and assistance of Lady St. Helier, who for nearly ten years provided funds to help the poorer schools. One of its Vice-Presidents, Mr. M. Yeatman Woolf, came forward and defrayed the cost of a series of annual records which were most helpful in spreading the school-journey gospel not only among London teachers but among council members, inspectors,

and teachers in other parts of the country. The Association has been most successful in watching the interests of its cause, obtaining extremely favourable railway concessions (one half the usual fares, and all under fourteen being considered 'children'), and fighting vigorously on occasions when those in authority seemed likely to take any step which might impede the progress of the movement or interfere with its smooth working.

Its most recent victory has been the result of delicate and skilful negotiation between the Board of Education, Labour M.P.'s, and the L.C.C., by which it secured a modification of the ruling that parents must not be allowed to contribute *anything* to the cost of school journeys.

The annual subscription is 2s., and the address of the Secretary is—Mrs. E. Austin, 71 Ermine Road, Ladywell, S.E. 13.

Hostels.

The chief difficulty at present confronting teachers is the dearth of suitable hostels. So far the L.C.C. have hesitated to provide them, but teachers have found several friends who have helped in this direction. Foremost amongst these are Sir John Kirk and Mr. A. Black of the Shaftesbury Society, who have equipped ideal homes at Loughton and Whitstable for the reception of school-journey parties. Many more of these are needed to meet the growing demand. Apart from these, teachers have tried a large variety of methods of meeting their own peculiar housing problem. Boarding houses, temperance hotels, retreats, country cottages, farms, camps, and schools have all been pressed into their service. A secondary school took a highly satisfactory and instructive

voyage by barge on canals. A few schools have tried the German tramp from place to place, but this has not been found to suit the vagaries of the British climate or the anxiety of the average English mother for the health of her offspring.

Camps are rather risky for children of ten to thirteen, and as girls undertake journeys equally with boys, the future home will probably be a specially equipped but rough and simple retreat. Disused army huts are obviously indicated for this purpose. While unsuited for young children the camp will no doubt be largely utilised by central and continuation schools. The average cost for board and lodging rose in 1920 to about 15s. to 21s. per child per week.

Educational Work.

The nature of this is largely conditioned by the locality visited, but teachers generally endeavour to find a home in a district which will yield the special teaching material they desire. Some journeys are taken for botany or nature study only, others for geography, history, literature. Probably the most valuable is that on which a superficial regional survey is attempted with a special bias in the direction of the teacher's own pet subject.

Almost every school prepares a guide-book by one of the manifolding processes for the use of the pupils. This should contain simple geological, rainfall, contour, and industrial maps, with notes on the geography, history, and industries of the district visited.

Rough field sketches with brief descriptive notes underneath are preferable to essays written up at night. Whenever possible it is desirable to gain

permission to visit the home of a local celebrity—a noble, the squire, or some gentleman who has a big house and grounds. If the great one can be induced to speak to the children, so much the better; it will be an education to both.

Children readily take to architecture[1] and most teachers try to include a cathedral, castle, or abbey in their itinerary. It is usually not difficult to secure free admission, and one can confidently seek the services of quite important personages to act as guides to a party of school children who are under good discipline and out for definite educational work.

A SPECIMEN SCHOOL JOURNEY: WESTON-SUPER-MARE

This journey was planned and organised by Mr. J. A. McCleery for the children of Ellerslie Road School, London, W. 12, in September 1919. A boarding house close to the sea took thirty-six boys and thirty-six girls in successive weeks under the care of two men and two women teachers respectively. A thirty-two page hectograph book containing maps, notes, illustrations, and some topical parodies on well-known songs was prepared beforehand and gone through carefully with the children during the fortnight before the trip. The total cost was 32s. per head.

1st Day: Railway Journey.

The journey down was an education in itself. The guide-book showed the rocks to be passed over, called attention to hill outlines, the way in which the railway seeks river valleys, the towns (and

[1] See *The Romance of Building*, by A. Walker, in this series.

their industries) passed. Thus Reading, Swindon, Bath, Bristol, the Clifton Gorge were learned as they never had been done before. Properly prepared and conducted, the railway journey constitutes a full day's work, and casual instruction on the sands picking up the Mendips, the Holm islands, South Wales, Brean Down, rounded off a very useful day.

2nd Day: The Beach and Cliffs.

Work of a more detailed nature was attempted here. The rolling in of the waves, their attack on the foot of the cliff, the way in which they found out soft spots and made caves or little bays, were all duly noted and sketches made. Pebbles, their size, shape, composition; seaweeds, their form, structure, method of growth; various shellfish, especially the limpet, young crabs, sea anemones, all claimed interested and at times excited attention. Questions were encouraged. After alfresco lunch, the cliffs were climbed and the afternoon was spent in the woods, noting the trees and their undergrowth, learning a little of the strange life of fungi, and ending up with a glorious blackberry foray. Dinner of two courses at 5.30. Evening, an hour's freedom on the sands; then a short chat on the work of the day, and the award of marks for conduct, initiative, and comradeship. (Some teachers give marks for conduct, personal tidiness, and notes.)

3rd Day: Brean Down.

This involved a ferry trip across the Axe and a climb to the top of a hill which juts out finely into the Bristol Channel—a capital view-point. It is a sanctuary for wild birds—which naturally formed the subject of observation and instruction. Boys

were interested to know that Marconi sent his first wireless message from this point, that the Phœnicians traded here two thousand years ago, and that it is possible the Romans finally left Britain *via* Brean.

After dinner, when it was dark, the various lighthouse flashes claimed attention, and the teacher was able to give practical instruction on a subject denied to the teacher in the class-room—the stars.

4th Day: Kewstoke and Worlebury.

Through the wood. Elementary lessons in forestry: common trees, their bark, leaves, fruit; tree felling, value of wood (correlated with the carpentry centre). After lunch, inspection of Kewstoke Church with its Norman porch.

5th Day: Sunday.

Church in the morning. Walks in the neighbourhood.

6th Day: Uphill and Bleadon.

An intimate study of rural Somerset with its quaint cottages, gardens, the village smithy, shop, and inn. Here the children encountered real dialect, and found it difficult to understand. But they understood the owner of a huge apple orchard who was shovelling apples into a cart when, in response to a shy request to purchase a pound of apples, they were told to tuck in and help themselves.

The churches of both villages were visited and they met another type of man in the village parson.

7th Day: Cheddar.

This was the grandest day of all and the most difficult to arrange, for it involved a long motor ride at a cost of 5s. per head. However, a number of the old school-journey boys generously contributed their shillings and half-crowns and no child had to be left behind. The long trip was taken past Toplady's Rock of Ages—up over the Mendips and down the Gorge. Both caves were visited. The boys already knew how caves and stalactites were formed; now they saw them and had caves and stalactites fixed in their minds for life. There was time for a little hammer work in the mountain limestone to get fossils, but not a minute for note or sketch making, which was a pity; but it often happens on a school journey—time and weather break in and spoil our best-made plans.

'Subject to alteration.'

All school-journey plans are subject to alteration, often at a minute's notice, and the wise teacher will not allow himself to be disturbed by the necessity of altering his arrangements if he thinks it desirable to do so. Thus during the war we suddenly came across a party of American soldiers with nothing in hand, and we had no hesitation in dropping all other work for the opportunity of fraternising with men of another nation. It will be an unusual school journey which does not present some such chance of improving on original plans.

In the journey under consideration the railway strike compelled an alteration, in the form of a compulsory extension of the visit. The L.C.C. wired that they would meet all unavoidable extra

expense and the teachers carried on, until a Plymouth train, driven by a voluntary driver, provided room in the Ocean Mail Van. The teachers agreed to act as guards, and managed to impart much useful geographical knowledge while sorting and distributing the mail bags.

XXIV

CAMPING AT SCHOOL

By Patrol Leader H. S. BRAUN

This account of an educational experiment differs from all the others in this book, inasmuch as it is written by one of those upon whom the experiment was tried. The views of the experimenter and his subject do not always coincide.—Ed.

THE County School for Boys, Harrow, in the year 1913 instituted a school camp in term time. The idea, in the main, was to establish a permanent camp, at which boys from the school could attend, in small parties, for the duration of the summer term. These boys were to live entirely in the camp, which they were to consider as their home, and which they were, in consequence, to keep clean and tidy. They were to buy and cook their own food, and, at the same time, attend school at the proper hours and find occasion to do their homework just as if they had been at home. A master would be in camp most of the time merely in order that a responsible person should be on the spot in case of accident or illness, but the boys were, as far as possible, to do everything for themselves. It was hoped that this scheme would teach the boys many things, impossible for them to learn either at home or in school—those things which train the senses,

and handiness and self-reliance. The result of these camps has been even greater than was expected.

It is not really such a difficult task as perhaps might be expected, this scheme of running a school camp in term time. In the Harrow County School we had, however, the advantage of possessing a branch of the boy-scout movement, in which the boys are taught such useful arts as those of fire-lighting and cooking, and this fact undoubtedly saved us a certain amount of trouble. The older and more experienced boys could help the younger boys, and these in turn soon learned to cook for and look after themselves. But our scout troop was, in 1913, only a year or two old, and very few of the boys, if any, had actually camped before. Boys very soon pick up things on which they are keen, and most boys are keen on camping. If there is some one, a master or an old boy in camp, who 'knows the ropes' and is willing to teach, the boys soon learn from him how things can be done with a minimum of time, labour, and mess. We had the advantage of having an 'old hand' in the person of our head master, to whom was due, in a large degree, the success of our earlier camps. But any head master can make his camp a success, no matter how small his knowledge of camping may be; if he himself is enthusiastic about it he can make his staff and boys enthusiastic too, and thereby obtain that loyal support for the scheme without which it cannot be successfully worked.

To come to the practical details of such a scheme. The first difficulty is usually that of finding a suitable camp site. At the Harrow County School we first of all used a portion of the school playing-field not needed for cricket; this made an excellent camp ground, as it was very convenient for school

and gave us much more time in camp than would have been the case had it been farther away. Later, when it became necessary to convert this ground into school allotments, we acquired a field opposite the school. This was also conveniently near and was, moreover, quite private, an admirable quality for a camping ground to possess. Nowadays that field has been taken over for building purposes, and we have obtained permission to use a small field about a quarter of a mile from school, not so convenient, of course, but a splendid site for all that, being obscured from the public view by a belt of fine pines and chestnuts, having a tap near by from which we draw our water supply, and possessing an abundant supply of firewood in the surrounding hedges and ditches. It is usually fairly easy in the country to acquire a small piece of ground for camping purposes if the school keeps on friendly terms with surrounding landowners.

Having secured a site, the next trouble is usually that of accommodation. This, of course, must be in tents, otherwise the camp is not worthy of the name. For 'tenderfoot' camping there is no doubt that the army 'bell' is the best all-round tent. Strong and 'foolproof,' though heavy and somewhat cumbersome for portage, it is usually pretty durable, and is capable of accommodating eight boys quite comfortably. It is undoubtedly the best tent for storage purposes, unless a marquee, which is also useful for having meals in during wet weather, can be obtained.

Bell tents may be hired fairly cheaply from almost any camp outfitters, but it is much more satisfactory, if funds will allow, to buy them. As we became more expert we discarded the 'bells' and used 'patrol tents,' which were cottage tents

about seven feet long by six feet six inches wide. These tents can be used with or without a fly-sheet; a fly-sheet is very useful for rainy weather, but it adds to the cost and weight of the tent. Patrol tents hold from four to six boys, according to their sizes, and are much cosier and lighter than bell tents, but they will not do for small boys who are given to jumping about. We made our own, buying the material (unbleached calico), and stitching it together under the guidance of an old boy who was an expert. Ground-sheets are very important. The army type can, if preferred, be bought from an outfitter, but we made excellent ones from 'Silver Queen' airship material; this is light, durable, comparatively cheap, and perfectly waterproof. Spades, picks, choppers, camp kettles, grids, and other impedimenta can be bought, borrowed, or hired as required.

The boys were expected to bring their own blankets, knives, forks, spoons, plates, etc., with them, of which necessaries each boy was given a list before coming to camp. It might be as well to remark here that we always insisted upon each boy bringing *at least three blankets* with him. People unused to camping are apt to suppose that all summer nights must necessarily be warm. Some may be, but the early hours of the mornings are not, and there is nothing more wearisome than to lie waiting, shivering with cold, for the dawn to break.

As regards the personnel—which, after all, is the most important part of a camp—our camp was intended to accommodate from twenty to twenty-five boys, according to their sizes, so each schoolhouse took it in turn, in alphabetical order of names, to send a party not exceeding that number to the camp for a week. When each house had

taken its turn, the rota recommenced. We usually started each week's camp on Monday at four o'clock. The boys brought their kit to afternoon school and started for their canvas home directly lessons were over. Camp was struck officially at four o'clock on the following Friday, but those boys who wished to stay over the week-end (and most of them did) could do so if they catered for themselves. The charge was three shillings per week 'rent' and about two shillings per day (war-time prices) for food. Each party came down in charge of a master or senior boy, in addition to whom there was a master who lived in camp the whole term and acted as 'camp commandant'; he was in charge of the tents and camp equipment. A letter was circulated to the parents of each boy informing them of the days on which the camp was to be held, the place and cost, and the equipment each boy was expected to bring. Each O.C. compiled his own letter.

One of the chief difficulties of running a school camp is the problem of cooking. Most masters would say that a boy has no time to cook his own meals (especially in the case of his dinner) and wash up after them, if he has to attend school as well, besides having to do his homework. That is where the O.C.'s ingenuity comes in. There are several ways of meeting this difficulty. One is to have a paid cook to prepare the boys' meals, but it is to be hoped that this alternative would only be a last resort, for it would do away with the main idea of the camp, which is to teach the boys to look after themselves. Or, to go to the other extreme, the boys can be left to find time to cook for themselves between school hours, for, in spite of what one might think to the contrary, it can

be managed. The boys must be watched, however, or some of the lazy ones may try to shirk cooking and buy, instead, tinned food, a thing always to be avoided in camp, especially in hot weather; in extreme cases of laziness boys may go without a meal altogether to avoid the trouble of cooking and washing up. If boys of that nature come to camp they need to be well looked after to prevent anything of the kind occurring.

Perhaps the most convenient scheme is to institute a system of orderlies. We found it necessary always to have somebody in camp, especially when the boys were in school. We therefore decided to have, every day, three orderlies. These would get up half an hour before the rest of the camp, light the fire, and prepare breakfast. One of them would stay in camp from the time the boys left for school until the mid-morning recess, between which times he would wash up the breakfast things, tidy up camp, and generally put things straight for the arrival of the second orderly, who came down during the mid-morning recess. This orderly was responsible for preparing dinner. The third orderly spent the afternoon in camp in washing up after dinner and getting tea ready. School over, the three of them washed up the tea things, prepared supper, and washed and tidied up tables and so on for the night. A fresh three took their places on the following day.

Each orderly had, in addition to these duties, various other items to see to according to circumstances. For instance, supposing it rained, the orderly on duty would have to slacken guy-ropes and fetch into the tents anything that had to be kept dry. It was the duty of every orderly to keep the fire burning and, in his spare time, to

collect firewood. This scheme is more convenient, but less instructive, than the every-one-for-himself method which, if it can be managed, adds greatly to the usefulness of the camp in furthering that idea of self-reliance which should be the motto of every school camp. One scheme we tried combined both the last methods. Orderlies were responsible for the three lesser meals of the day, breakfast, tea, and either dinner or supper (whichever of the two was to be the lighter meal), and the boys themselves bought and cooked their chief meal, whether it happened to be dinner or supper. Some O.C.'s made one method work, some preferred another, but, whatever arrangements were made for cooking, they were always a success. The one golden rule for camp-cooking arrangements is—never let the fire go out. A good deal of time is wasted in camp on lighting and relighting the fire.

Another difficulty in running a school camp is the problem of homework. Some boys, especially those possessing fountain pens, found that they could do their homework quite as well in camp as at home; others, on the other hand, could not. Some arrangements had to be made for the latter party. We solved the difficulty by arranging for the school buildings to be left open for an hour or two after the close of afternoon school, so that those who wished to do their homework in the building, where they could use the desks, ink, and other conveniences, could do so. We found this arrangement quite satisfactory.

Sanitary arrangements were very carefully organised. Latrines were dug, and the rules governing the use of these were very strict. They were kept well disinfected, and never used longer

than a week, if as long. In fact, all proper precautions were taken to ensure the cleanliness of the camp, and thereby the health of the campers. Rubbish pits were dug, and the camp was tidied up regularly every evening.

Religion was not forgotten. The strongest-minded boy is apt to be shy of saying his prayers in a tent filled with other boys, however much he may want to. So, every evening, after the camp-fire singsong, we used to form a semicircle round the fire, and the senior person present would read prayers, after which we joined in saying the Lord's Prayer. This simple little service made a fitting end to the day, and no irreverence during it was ever experienced. Boys are emotional creatures, and a service under the stars, round a camp-fire and accompanied by the owls and the night-jars, is seldom unimpressive.

Speaking of the camp-fire reminds me of the most important item on the day's programme—the camp-fire singsong. Every night, just before turning in, all the work being done, the campers gathered together round the fire for the evening 'singsong.' There was nothing formal, nothing prearranged; some one would strike up a tune we all knew, and everybody would take it up, some in unison, some in extempore harmony. The effect was, invariably, very fine. As we felt sleepier, the singing would cease, and some popular story-teller would be asked to 'spin a yarn,' a ghost story as a rule. The person called upon would usually oblige, and his listeners would devour the yarn with occasional ejaculations and questions. The story ended, prayers and turn in. They were great things, those singsongs. Often one of the non-camping masters would drop in and help with the programme, thereby

greatly raising himself in the opinion of the boys. Rank and distinction were forgotten; we were all one in the great Brotherhood of the Camp Fire, one of the oldest brotherhoods the world has ever known.

Having wandered on at some length in detailing the various items in the running of a school camp, let us take a typical day's programme. We will suppose we are working on the system of orderlies. At 6.30 the orderlies for the day get up, light the fire, and start to prepare breakfast (porridge, bacon, bread and butter, marmalade, cocoa). Half an hour later réveillé sounds and the remaining campers rise, wash, and (if possible) get a swim. They spend the time remaining before breakfast, which is at 8 o'clock, in tidying up their tents, and taking out their groundsheets and blankets to give them a thorough airing (on a clothes line if we have rigged one up). After breakfast they collect their books and, with the exception of the first orderly, arrive at school about 8.45. The orderly performs the duties before mentioned until 10.45, when he is relieved. The second orderly prepares dinner (*e.g.* Irish stew, potatoes, 'spotted Dick' and jam, bread) ready for the boys when they arrive in camp, morning school over, at 1 o'clock or thereabouts. Dinner finished, there is a compulsory rest for everybody until 1.45, when we again set out for school, with the exception of the afternoon orderly. We come back for tea (bread and butter, jam, tea, possibly a cake), after which those who wish may spend the evening in playing cricket or some field-game such as one of those played by the boy scouts. On one evening a week visitors, parents and others, can inspect the camp if they so wish. At 8 o'clock comes

supper (cocoa, bread and cheese), after which the boys get their tents ready and tidy up camp for the night. At 9 o'clock comes our evening singsong, yarns, and prayers. At 9.30 we turn in and 'lights out' sounds at 10, and so the long day closes.

There can be no doubt as to its being an excellent institution, this school camp. It provides an interesting, educational, and comparatively cheap holiday, even while we are at school. Its educational value cannot be disputed. In our present-day schools we talk a good deal about training the mind, and, in some cases, we have a system of sports, drill, and games which is calculated to train, in some degree, the body. That is as far as we *go*; several of the things which go to build up the character—the instincts, the imagination, and the moral side generally—are more or less passed over. The school-time camp is what is wanted to fill in this gap and complete the scheme of character-building. In camp, the characters of master and boy alike will be brought out; master and boy 'find each other out,' very often forming a higher opinion of each other than they had before. Many lasting friendships have been formed over the camp-fire. And camping, like most things, must be started young. When boys get to the age of fifteen or thereabouts, there is often considerable difficulty in getting them to take up camping. They are shy of camp life and they are not keen on learning to look after themselves. When boys start young, on the other hand, they are thoroughly alive, and the life appeals to their imagination. Once infected they will never get tired of camping and the 'simple life.' And besides the knowledge gained, there is an enormous amount of pleasure

to be derived from camp life. How pleasant it is to be independent—to live in the open air, in the company of fur, feather, and fin! What treats they have missed who have never slept under the stars, lulled to sleep by the night-birds that call to each other under the moon—who have never smelt 'wood-smoke at twilight'—who have never sat and yarned with the great Brotherhood of the Camp Fire. And many of us can experience all these pleasures through the medium of a school camp run in school time.

XXV

SCHOOL JOURNEYS BY CANAL

By Dr. H. E. PIGGOTT, Hornsey County School

CHOOL journeys are a most valuable and in some respects a unique means of education. They have recently received a great stimulus by the official recognition of their importance from the Board of Education and by the financial support of many education authorities.

For years the School Journey Association has done valuable pioneer and propaganda work of the best kind. Its members have carried out school journeys and visits of great variety and number under many difficulties. To its work and influence is largely due the changed attitude of education committees, and the definite provision of grants to teachers and scholars to enable them to go out and see.

The Board of Education has induced the railways to give better terms to school parties who present the voucher of the School Journey Association. Children under fourteen can now travel at half single fare, teachers and old pupils at single fare, for the double journey. Before the war the general public enjoyed a similar privilege, but with two important limitations which robbed it of much of its value for schools. The conditions for

half single fares were an age limit of twelve years and a minimum number equal to thirty adults. The age limit was not too rigorously pressed, but the minimum of about sixty pupils and teachers was strictly adhered to. Now the essence of a really successful visit with children is that the party shall be small enough to allow each one to see and hear and to ask questions easily. The railway minimum number which crippled the teacher's efforts has now been removed.

On continental railways the minimum was usually fixed at ten pupils without age limit, it being a condition of issuing the special tickets that the party should consist of pupils or students. Teachers travelled free.

The value of the improved railway concessions in England is unfortunately heavily discounted by the great increase in fares. Journeys from London to Winchester can now hardly be planned, to cover the bare necessities, at less than ten shillings per head. Canterbury costs more. Cambridge and Windsor can be visited at a cost of about eight shillings each, *i.e.* in each case for pupils over fourteen years of age. These are particularly interesting and valuable centres for the study of geography, history, architecture, etc. A visit to Stratford-on-Avon by rail is for most schools of the south an unrealisable dream.

There are fortunately other means of travel and transport, less known, but in many respects more promising. Walking and cycling parties might and probably will become more common in long and short holidays as secondary schools more generally take up school journeys and camps. For older boys and girls who walk or cycle well and can carry the simple equipment needed for sleeping in the hay-shelters and barns of friendly

farmers, there is great scope for enterprise along these lines. In better days a party of eleven teachers, boys and girls, spent a delightful week walking on the North Downs, using however the cheap and easily obtainable bedroom accommodation of those times.

The supremacy of railway transport has caused us to forget that at one time the fastest and cheapest mode of travelling was by canal. It was also interesting and comfortable travel at a time when the journey by road was dangerous and difficult. Soon after the Bridgwater Canal was opened in 1761 (primarily for coal transport) its passenger traffic grew beyond all anticipations. People were carried twenty miles for a shilling (a fraction of the coach charges) and made a quick and pleasant journey. Special boats were built to carry 120 passengers and luggage. There were three classes, and travellers had the advantage of a 'coffee-house' or restaurant on board. During the wars with Napoleon the most remarkable feat of transport was conveying bodies of soldiers by canal from Liverpool to London in five days.

The first and greatest use of the canal, however, was coal transport. The Bridgwater Canal reduced the cost of coal carriage to Manchester from forty shillings per ton (by road) to six shillings. Under the new stimulus of cheap coal, industries developed rapidly, and it has been said that England under Brindley (the great canal engineer) beat France under Napoleon. Men and materials were carried and money was made to carry on the war.

As industries developed and canal sides became the sites of great and often hideous and dirty factories, the canals became great sewage systems. Many still remain unthinkably dirty, ugly, and offensive. The passenger traffic, especially after

the invention of railways, disappeared rapidly. Save for an occasional school treat on improvised seats in barges that were hauled into the country and moored by the side of a green field, the use of canals for passengers soon ceased.

This was followed by the gradual disuse of many canals altogether. Railway competition and often railway policy left some of them derelict and others barely usable. We may not here discuss the economic and national consequences of this policy. But we may note that to-day, apart from the Grand Junction and Regent Canals which join London and Birmingham, there is scarcely any canal traffic south of the Midlands and but very few boats.

As the canals became commercially useless and therefore neglected they became picturesque, clean, and interesting. Shady nooks, abounding wild flowers, crumbling locks and quaint lock-houses often make a towing-path ramble a source of refreshing delight in the south. A few old-fashioned lovers of fishing still spend their holidays on or by the Kennet and Avon Canal—often in a hired fishing-boat. At least one stockbroker spent his easily-won profits on fitting up a special barge as a sort of floating bungalow on the Grand Junction. But the canal is as yet an undiscovered holiday resort!

Experiments in school journeys by canal have however been made with considerable success. The idea was born on the canal side while a party of teachers and pupils of the Hornsey County School was returning from a walk on the Chilterns. As they trod the towing-path of the Grand Junction they passed pairs of boats travelling to London, and the question was asked, 'Why not a school journey by canal?' The boats provide

both transport and home in one—the cheapest of transport and the jolliest moving camp known!

The idea matured, plans were set on foot. Visits were paid to Uxbridge where, at a branch office and building shop of Messrs. Fellows, Morton, and Clayton, a good friend was made. Two barges (more correctly called 'monkey boats') were hired and equipped for a ten-days' return journey to Warwick. The whole equipment included a horse to tow the two boats, and a reliable and patient boatman with his wife and family of three. Their business was to see to the transport, to drive, steer, work the locks, feed and stable the horse, and take a general interest in the party. They were very sporting and helpful.

The preparations were considerable. A canal journey is not quite so easy as a visit to the sea by train. But, apart from the journey itself, things are easier. Probably no large camp which can move as long and as often as it likes and stop where it wishes could be so easily arranged as a canal journey. There are no beds to be sought, there is no pitching and striking camp, equipment is always at hand, always ready for use; there is no labour of personal transport, and no searching for suitable sites. The boats can be at the canal side by night or day at any convenient spot.

We had two boats. One was reserved for the use of mistresses and about thirty girls, the other for masters and boys. Each boat was kitchen, dining-room, lounge, and bedroom in turn, or sometimes simultaneously. We laid in a great store of provisions and camping cooking-utensils—supplied by a large camp-catering firm. The food supplies included tinned and cooked meat and milk, a case of eggs, a box of butter, sugar, fresh, dried, and tinned fruit. Such things are more easily and

cheaply bought in London than in the country. Only bread, potatoes, salads, and milk were bought daily. Each boat had its equipment of Primus and Beatrice stoves standing in half barrels or sugar boxes to keep off draughts and dresses.

Tate sugar boxes formed the bulk of our furniture. Strong, clean, light, standardised boxes are very convenient for storage, as trunk and wardrobe (shared by two), as seats, and as supports for our long wide tables. These last had no legs and were hinged down the middle, to be easily folded and stored or used for a long seat. Planks on boxes were the seats at meal time.

The kitchen was at the stern of the boat. No cooking more ambitious than boiling water, milk, eggs, or potatoes was attempted. Meals were simple but hearty and catering was extraordinarily cheap.

For three years we took our journey to Warwick, which we made a centre of excursions. Three days were spent in getting there, and lunches on those days were cold. While visiting Warwick or other towns we obtained a good hot meal at a restaurant at ninepence per head. Three days were spent on the return with cold luncheons again. Salads were plentiful and often gratis in August. Pupils and teachers were organised in fatigue parties to forage, cook, wash, sweep, and carry water.

In fine weather the boats were open to wind and sun. Shelter, partial or complete, was easily and quickly arranged. The boat side is about four feet high. Along the whole length of the open boat and about eight feet above the bottom runs a broad thick plank—an elevated seat or footway by day, a support for large tarpaulins by night or when wet. Each boat carries these large waterproof sheets folded and handy. It can be com-

pletely roofed over in five minutes, and even in wet weather it can be made a very cosy place with a great range of ventilation and light.

The sleeping arrangements were simple and inexpensive. Two yards of calico with each end turned over and threaded with a strong cord makes a very useful hammock. The boats are six feet six inches wide, and the hammocks are slung from hooks screwed in near the top or from a rope run round the boat. Personal luggage includes warm night clothes and blankets or rugs. The open part of the boat is about sixty feet long and, allowing six feet for the kitchen, thirty persons (or more) made rather a squeeze. Some, usually girls, elected to sleep on the floor. Others slung their hammock aloft under the broad plank. In the morning one end of the hammock was unslung and fastened to the other. In the bag so formed blankets and night clothes were stored or all were packed in the sugar box.

In the daytime hammocks were much used for resting and reading. The first night aboard is always short. Hammocks are not so easily and quickly slung, and a little tact is required to get into them and keep there. There is much excitement. Many see the sun rise for the first time and learn to know real hunger while waiting for the six-o'clock breakfast.

When travelling to Warwick we were on the move from dawn till dusk, and covered thus thirty to thirty-five miles per day. The boats travel at about three miles per hour, but the passage of locks makes the average progress about two miles. Boys and girls were on the tow-path very early on the first morning, but after a few days they could scarcely get ready for an eight-o'clock breakfast.

While on the move the boats travelled 'in single file,' but when in the locks and generally at meal times they were fastened side by side. This added a little to the tax on the horse. The rear boat could easily be hauled up by one or two boys, so that it was easy to pass from one to another. Meal time—especially tea—was always a great social function with full intercourse and exchange of both home-made and bought confectionery.

It is easy to leave or board the boat at the numerous locks or the still more numerous bridges, under which the narrowed passage compels the boat to pass quite near to the towing-path. Sketch maps of the canal were available and were most useful in planning visits and excursions, long and short. Canals often make wide detours, and there are sometimes long flights of locks (as at Devizes) to pass through, which give time enough for a visit to be paid to a neighbouring town or church or factory, etc. Farms, woods, quarries, brick kilns or workshops, churches and castles are centres of education for town children.

At suitable times and places swimming was allowed and was much appreciated. (The school has a swimming bath attached.) The boats, partly roofed over, became changing rooms, diving boards, and centres of water sport. The outward journey, if fine, was usually a time of great activity due to surplus energy and unusual stimulus. But the return was much more occupied in reading, quiet walks, games on the boat, letter writing, or even dozing in a hammock. It was on the return too that the hour of dusk was often very pleasantly spent in an impromptu concert, the whole party assembling on one boat for the purpose of choral singing, recitations, and stories.

Arrived at Warwick we got kind permission to

'tie up' at the quay of the town gasworks. This gave us a very accessible and yet quite private berth and a good starting point. We hired motor buses belonging to the gasworks to visit Stratford-on-Avon and Kenilworth. The first day we visited the river and beautiful castle of Warwick, the ancient gates, streets, and houses, enjoyed our hot lunch, and then rambled in the well-wooded country around and visited the old water mill and Guy's Cliff. Our photographers were kept busy.

The next day our buses took us through the beautiful Shakespeare country to Stratford-on-Avon. This is undoubtedly the best way to approach one of the most interesting towns in our interesting country. On our first visit Miss Marie Corelli very kindly entertained the whole party to tea in a large tent in her paddock and personally showed us her beautiful house and gardens. The cordiality of her reception of some sixty-five complete strangers gave every one very great pleasure. On our later visits we had time to see the weaving and other artistic craft work at Shottery and enjoy the town and river.

The London suburbs are often so lacking in both architectural and natural beauty that a few days in the towns and county of Warwick have many values beyond that of giving health and pleasure.

On the third day the motors took us to Leamington and Kenilworth. Before these visits much preparation in history, geography, literature, architecture, etc., was done at school. This was gathered up on the spot. After lunch in the ruined banqueting hall of the castle the party followed closely the story of the castle and its owners, read from the guide-book and from Scott's *Kenilworth*.

Next morning, long before we had left our ham-

mocks, the boats were moving southward. The slight sway of the boat and the splash of the ripple against its sides told us that, but no one joined the little chill figure of the boatman's son on the tow-path! Even the breakfast fatigue party was not yet astir. Relaxation and laziness settled upon us after a strenuous week, the warm sun and fresh air made even the most energetic drowsy and peaceful. The cool evening, with its concert and a last ramble through some quaint village while the horse was being stabled and boats covered in, ended each very pleasant day and left ineffaceable memories in our minds.

The school made five canal journeys. The last two were to Bath and Bristol with excursions to Tintern and Cheddar and Wells.[1] Each lasted about ten days. There were no serious accidents or illnesses. The worst case was puzzling and proved to be a kind of sea-sickness. On each journey there were one or two mothers in the party and they were very helpful.

We never boarded the boats in or near London. The first day's journey out is circuitous, tedious, and dirty. The day was saved by taking train to a convenient place for transhipping where the station stands by the canal. Going to Warwick this was King's Langley. Returning, we landed there again at about three o'clock, having spent part of the morning packing up personal and school equipment. It was a very brown and sleepy party that returned to Hornsey, after adventures that seemed to have lasted for weeks and certainly made permanent impressions on every member of it.

A remarkable fact about these canal journeys

[1] Fully described in the booklet, *To the West of England by Canal.* (Dent.)

is their cheapness. In these days it sounds incredible to say that the total cost of the Warwick journey of nine days, including return fares, motor buses, hot lunches, and all costs of barges, tolls, etc., amounted to about 17s. 6d. per head. Where parties of children are concerned people are usually sympathetic, helpful, and generous. We made friends in all classes and all were anxious to remove difficulties. Among the best and most important helpers were the 'bargees,' who were very sporting and willing and proved equal to all emergencies.

The great difficulty, in these days especially, would be to get the boats, horse, and drivers. This was the greatest problem on the Kennet and Avon Canal, where very few boats exist. On the first visit to Bath we hired the boats at Newbury. They came to meet the party at Aldermaston. On the second occasion the boats came from Devizes to Kintbury. An inclusive charge was made for the whole equipment. This amounted to about five shillings per head. There are tolls to pay *en route* going to Warwick when three canals are used, but for the Bristol journey all arrangements are made with the G.W. Railway Traffic Manager, to whom the toll is paid before starting.

On the Grand Junction route Messrs. Fellows, Morton, and Clayton are the principal agents and boat owners. Their manager at Birmingham, Mr. Ketterer, Park Wharf, Saltley, is the most likely to be able to arrange for boats and men and to give information as to tolls and traffic. London schools might be able to arrange with the manager at Uxbridge, Mr. Moss, c/o Messrs. Fellows, Morton, and Clayton, Warwick Road.

A monkey boat will carry a load up to forty tons. About thirty teachers and pupils and

equipment would weigh two tons. Our boats were, therefore, allowed to pass as empties, which considerably reduced the toll charges. Such an enterprise is at present quite outside ordinary canal traffic, and much can be done by personal negotiation and by enlisting the interest of those concerned. On the first occasion the work of organisation is considerable, but a journey of this kind has very high value mentally and physically, while the interest and pleasure is only to be fully appreciated by those who have taken part.

It would be an excellent enterprise for larger education authorities within easy reach of suitable canals to purchase and fit up two (or more) canal boats for regular and continuous use from May to September, by parties from different schools. In this way the maximum value could be obtained with the minimum of trouble and expense.

XXVI

THE WIGAN WELFARE EXPERIMENT: JUVENILE EMPLOYMENT AND WELFARE WORK

Adapted from the Annual Report of the Wigan Juvenile Organisations Committee

THE Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910, conferred upon county councils and county borough councils the power to make arrangements for giving advice and assistance to boys and girls with respect to the choice of suitable employment. The Wigan Education Authority adopted the Act in 1913, and constituted a Juvenile Employment Sub-Committee to carry out these duties in accordance with a scheme duly approved under the Act.

The operations of the Juvenile Employment Sub-Committee are conducted through the agency of two branches, viz :—

(1) The Juvenile Employment Exchange; and
(2) The Juvenile Organisations Committee.

Of these, the former is concerned with employment and further education of the child after leaving the primary school, while the latter assists parents in matters relating to the general welfare of the child during the years of adolescence. It is the work of this committee that is described in

this chapter; the work of the Employment Exchange is on a line with that of similar bodies elsewhere.

It was the experience of the working of the Juvenile Employment Exchange that convinced certain enlightened citizens of Wigan that if the full benefit of the effort to help young people in regard to employment was to be gained, it would be necessary to supplement the official staff by a large number of suitable voluntary workers. Only in this way is it possible to keep in touch with the 1500 children who each year leave the elementary schools, and to secure that friendly intercourse and oversight which is so desirable at this period. It is important, too, that some friend should be available at the right time who is competent to advise the parents, where necessary, as to the conditions of employment in the occupation selected. This supervision is not intended to supersede or in any way to lessen parental responsibility, but rather to assist parents by supplying them with information they are often unable otherwise to obtain. And it has been found in practice that parents generally welcome the voluntary helper, and are grateful for the information given.

The need for some such provision became more evident than ever during the period of the war. The weakening of the home influence and control owing to the absence of so many fathers; the abnormal wages earned by boys and girls and the more independent spirit engendered thereby; the absence of so many day and Sunday school teachers with whom the young people had previously been associated—all these factors combined to produce a large increase in juvenile crime and to point to the need of strengthening such

influences as were available for dealing with welfare work amongst young people. With this object in view, a large number of meetings (some forty in all) of parents and church and Sunday-school workers were held during the winter of 1918-1919. This campaign resulted in the formation of after-care committees associated with all the churches and Sunday schools of the town, and some five hundred of those who were already doing a great deal of voluntary work in connection with various parochial organisations undertook the additional duties involved in the welfare scheme.

With the after-care committees so formed were associated all the organisations and guilds in Wigan concerned in any form of welfare work, and a central council under the title of the Wigan Juvenile Organisations Committee was formed in May 1918. The objects of the Juvenile Organisations Committee are :—

(1) To arrange for the visitation at their homes of all boys and girls before leaving school.
(2) To induce them to become associated with some parochial or other organisation interested in the welfare of young people.
(3) To strengthen all such organisations and assist them in providing facilities for outdoor and indoor forms of recreation and the proper use of leisure time.

In carrying out these duties arrangements have been made for the association in the welfare work of the voluntary helpers and the officials of the education committee. Some three months before the termination of the child's primary school course the school-attendance officer ascertains the views of the parents with regard to the child's employment and future education, and the particular

organisation with which they would desire the child to be associated. This information is forwarded to the particular after-care or other committee concerned, and the services of one of the voluntary helpers is enlisted. Before the time arrives for the child to leave school, a friendly relationship is established between the voluntary helper, the parents, and the child which it is hoped will continue throughout the whole period of adolescence. As all the various denominations in the town are combined in the movement, the Juvenile Organisations Committee are in a position to deal with all of the 1500 children who anually leave the primary schools each year.

Having been thus directly brought into association with all the children who leave Wigan schools, or who may come from areas of other education authorities, it becomes the concern of the care committees to endeavour to second the efforts of the parents by enrolling the boy or girl in Sunday school, club, or other society associated therewith. Incidentally, then, the efforts of the Juvenile Organisations Committee tend materially to strengthen the membership of all religious bodies or bodies concerned with the social progress of the people. Many of these have already reported large accessions of junior members, but the degree of success that will be ultimately attained will naturally depend upon the spirit infused into the work by the members of the various after-care committees. As the Boy Scouts, Y.M.C.A., and all similar organisations not directly connected with particular churches or schools, are recruited in a similar manner, means exist for helping those who may not be in direct association with one or other of the various denominations.

In the development of the various activities the

Juvenile Organisations Committee devoted attention to measures designed to assist the after-care committees in providing means of suitable outdoor and indoor recreation. In this branch of their work they have been very materially assisted by the Home Office and the Ministry of Munitions. The Committee have been fortunate enough to be able to take advantage of a ruling of the Board of Inland Revenue, by virtue of which recreation schemes established in connection with munition works were financed from the proceeds of the Excess Profits Duty, provided such schemes met with the approval of the Home Office and the Ministry of Munitions. Application was made by the Juvenile Organisations Committee for the approval of the Wigan scheme, and in due course the recreation scheme was cordially approved, and the Wigan Juvenile Organisations Committee became affiliated to the Home Office Committee. This recreation scheme was the first scheme in the country based on such a happy combination of the welfare workers connected with all the various denominations to be so approved.

The ruling of the Board of Inland Revenue with regard to the payment of capitation grants from the Excess Profits Duty in aid of the Wigan recreation scheme is of the greatest importance to local employers and others. The Board of Inland Revenue have informed the Home Office Committee that they are in a position to make allowances under existing laws in computing the liability to Excess Profits Duty of the firms contributing to approved schemes for providing recreation on the lines of the Wigan scheme, and this provision applies equally to controlled and non-controlled firms. In each case the firm's subscription in the form of a capitation grant,

based upon the total number of employees of both sexes, will be reckoned as 'working expenses' in calculating Excess Profits Duty. The Wigan Juvenile Organisations Committee were also informed by the Home Office Committee that annual contributions to schemes of recreation for uncontrolled establishments which do not entail capital expenditure are normally admissible for Income Tax purposes in the same way as for Excess Profits Duty. This ruling of the Home Office is likely to be of great importance long after the Excess Profits Duty has totally disappeared.

The Committee first scheduled all the existing provision of facilities for recreation—parks, football grounds, swimming baths, clubs for boys and girls, branches of the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., political clubs, etc. This survey revealed that the most pressing needs were the provision of recreation grounds in different parts of the town, and of social clubs and other means of indoor recreation. The Town Council Parks Committee entered heartily into the spirit of the new venture, and offered to grant facilities for the use of the parks and of any ground in their possession which might be suitable for the purposes in view.

The Committee then prepared a detailed scheme of what was necessary in the different parts of the borough and in the borough as a whole. They undertook to be responsible for the proper expenditure of any grants allocated to them by the Finance Committee, and for the management of the various forms of indoor recreation, in accordance with the approved scheme. Outdoor recreation was left to be organised and controlled by the joint committee representative of the local Juvenile Organisations Committee.

As soon as the official sanction of the scheme had been received and the Committee had become affiliated to the Home Office Committee dealing with juvenile organisations, arrangements were made for issuing an appeal to local employers and for securing the necessary grounds for outdoor sports during the season. The cost of carrying out the scheme was estimated at £3500 for the first year (Wigan has a population of about 84,000), with a small outlay in succeeding years. A representative meeting of employers was held, and a resolution was unanimously adopted approving of the scheme and commending it to the favourable consideration and support of all local employers of labour. A further resolution was also unanimously adopted fixing the capitation grant for the first year at a rate not exceeding four shillings per head of the total number of employees of the firms.

The first season's outdoor work was an unqualified success. All the recreation grounds were fully utilised for football, as many as thirty or forty teams a week being engaged. A football competition was instituted and thirty junior and twelve senior teams entered.

As an illustration of the way the scheme of recreation as a whole is being worked, we may take five specimen cases from different organisations and districts :—

No. 1.—*A Sunday School in the heart of the borough.*

(*a*) An Old Boys' and Girls' Association (Day and Sunday Schools).

(*b*) Evening Continuation Classes—Commercial and Domestic Centres, Scouts' Training Classes, Choral Class for Boys, Girls, and Adults.

(*c*) Girls' Club. Meetings on—

Monday	.	Sick Nursing and Ambulance.
Tuesday	.	Old English Dancing.
Wednesday	.	Literary Society.
Thursday	.	Fancy Needlework.
Friday	.	Indoor Games—Badminton, etc.
Saturday	.	Hockey (and at other convenient times).

(*d*) Boys' Football and Cricket Clubs. Field allocated.

No. 2.—A Sunday School on the outskirts of the borough.

(*a*) Girls' Physical Culture Class. Tennis in summer.
(*b*) Boys' Institute for Indoor Games and Social Life.
(*c*) Football Club.
(*d*) Young People's Own—Devotional, Literary, and Social Gatherings weekly.

No. 3.—Organisation in the centre of the town.

(*a*) Sunday School.
(*b*) Young People's Society—Literary, Dramatic, and Social Evenings.
(*c*) Badminton Club and other Indoor Games—meets three times a week.
(*d*) Football and Cricket Clubs.
(*e*) Gymnasium Club.
(*f*) Girls' Hockey Club.

No. 4.—Sunday School in the industrial neighbourhood of the town.

(*a*) Young People's Guild—Literary and Social Evenings; Indoor Games.
(*b*) Football and Cricket Clubs.
(*c*) String Band.

The distinctive features of the Wigan experiment are that it is in touch with every single child in the borough, and that it has provided or is providing opportunities for every one of these

children to get advice as to careers and employment, and, equally important, opportunities for recreation both indoor and out. And this has been accomplished by enlisting the services of a large number of voluntary workers and securing a kind of federation of every church and chapel and club in the whole borough.

N.B.—The Juvenile Organisations Committee has now been transferred from the Home Office to the Board of Education.

XXVII

THE SHEFFIELD FEDERATED EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Adapted from material supplied by the Secretary of the Association

By O. M. ANDREWS

IN 1913 the Sheffield Teachers' Association formed an education campaign committee, to which all other educational associations in the city sent representatives, to visit various organisations and address them on the subject of education. The committee suspended its activities when war broke out, but in the summer of 1917 decided to resume the campaign, and a new committee was formed. In the election of this committee the association was guided by one principle only—the selection of representative teachers of all grades who would take an active part in the campaign. So much general agreement was shown by the members that after the first meeting of the committee the campaign was in full swing. The campaign committee prepared a statement of principles which it was hoped to see embodied in an Education Bill, but ere it had begun to lay its scheme before the public Mr. Fisher's Bill was introduced. This necessitated a hasty change of plan. The attitude of

the committee to the new Bill was promptly defined, and it was decided that the first phase of the campaign should be directed to persuading the public to give the Bill its heartiest support as an earnest endeavour to lay the foundations of a sound system of national education.

Over seven hundred organisations—social, religious, political, and industrial—were approached, and when the committee next met it was faced by invitations from fifty organisations representing all shades of public opinion. Every member of the committee was a busy person. Most of them were engaged in the evening as well as day school work and in other activities, but all felt that this campaign must be carried through at any cost, and their enthusiasm was increased by an address from Mr. Fisher himself to the association.

The first body to receive a deputation happened to be the local branch of the National Association of Insurance Agents. An assistant master in an elementary school gave a brief outline of the idea of the Education Bill and a secondary school assistant master gave an address on the meaning and possibilities of a sound system of national education. A keen discussion took place and then a member of the audience asked, 'What can we do immediately to support this campaign?' He thereupon proposed a resolution, which was carried unanimously, welcoming the Education Bill and pledging those present to support it in every possible way. The secretary of the branch was instructed to send a copy of the resolution to the President of the Board of Education, the local M.P., the Chairman of the Education Committee, the Press, etc.

This beginning of the campaign was typical of its progress. Without exception every society

which was visited welcomed the deputation most cordially, listened attentively, discussed the problem intelligently, sought for information, and was not only willing but anxious to receive suggestions as to how the members could best further the campaign. Every aspect of the problem—economic, social and educational, primary and secondary——was discussed, and no one type of audience was more cordial than another in its earnest support. For instance, the Chemical and Pharmaceutical Society was as keen as the most advanced branch of the National Union of Railwaymen. The National Union of Clerks and the Amalgamated Union of Operative Bakers and Confectioners were both anxious to demand more than the Fisher Bill proposes. During a single week a political club with one hundred members present, a literary and debating society with a full attendance of fifty or sixty, a branch of the Blacksmiths' Union, a branch of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, several branches of the National Union of Railwaymen, the Adult School Union, and a special meeting of the Iron, Steel, and Metal Dressers' Union at which two hundred and fifty men were present, were addressed by members of the campaign committee, and all enthusiastically passed resolutions giving their heartiest support. An adult school in one of the outlying villages celebrated its eleventh anniversary by having an education campaign itself and inviting speakers from the campaign committee to address meetings in the morning, afternoon, and evening on education. The Sheffield Evangelical Free Church Council called a special meeting to receive a deputation. The Assurance Managers' Association and the Executive Committee of the Guild of Help, the Independent Labour Party and the

Theosophical Society, the Sheffield Trades and Labour Council and the Esperanto Society, the Ethical Society and the Federated Trades' Council, the Friendly Societies' Council, and men's, women's, and neighbourhood guilds stood side by side with trade union branches in the campaign committee's programme of deputations. Every organisation needed an address to suit its own individuality, but all were equally interested in the broad national question.

This phase of the campaign was ended with the postponement of Mr. Fisher's Bill, and in the next phase of the campaign it was necessary to consider the advisability of consolidating the growing force of public opinion and directing it towards assisting to secure for Sheffield the best possible system of education.

The great federations of organised bodies were invited to send representatives to form with the teachers a joint committee. The Sheffield Federated Education Association was formed and a committee appointed to draft a suggested constitution. A fortnight after the formation of this committee the same joint committee met again and adopted a constitution. About two months later the first meeting of the Council was held and about forty representatives were appointed by associations which had already affiliated. As a nucleus for its Library and Bureau of Information the Association had already a gift of pamphlets. The formation of the Association was welcomed by the directors of large companies in the city, the local members of parliament, the religious leaders of all denominations, the local trade union leaders, the Vice-Chancellor of the University, the Professors of Education and other

prominent citizens, who all expressed their hopes of its great success.

At least six members of the Education Committee were also members of the Association and every phase of public opinion was represented.

Since the Education Act was passed the Association has been considering various phases of local education which will be possible under the Act, so that it may be prepared to make suggestions to the authority in preparing its scheme and that the federated associations may be able with informed and sound judgment to criticise the scheme.

The Association has arranged to collect together a series of special reports and memoranda bearing on every section of the Education Act. The purely technical sections such as school accommodation, co-ordination between various types of schools, organising teachers and inspection and so on, have been referred for report to the appropriate affiliated teachers' organisation. Matters such as school gardens, school swimming baths, utilisation of public libraries and museums, camp schools, nursery schools, and a number of other matters have been referred for reports and memoranda to persons specially interested in these particular subjects.

Business men, publicists, and leaders of local public opinion generally have been invited to make their contribution to the statement of the city's ideal of education. Purely statistical matters and details of administration, which are the business of the administrative staff of the Education Committee, are not being dealt with, but a mass of instructed opinion upon broad general

principles is being gathered together, so that the whole problem of a civic ideal of education under the provisions of the new Act may be visualised at once and the Education Committee may feel that it has behind it a strong force of public opinion when introducing an educational policy under the Act to cover a series of years. This collection of reports and memoranda will be edited and then considered by the Council of the Association, which will express judgment on them, for publication.

Concurrently with this activity the propaganda committee has circularised all affiliated associations, asking them to forward to the Association resolutions expressing their opinions and wishes on any section of the Act in which they are especially interested. These resolutions will be formulated under appropriate headings and submitted to the development committee of the local education authority for consideration when drawing up its scheme.

The Association promises to send speakers to any organisation which wants information or enlightenment on any part of the provisions of the Act, and is also sending out missionaries to organisations which have not yet affiliated.

When the policy under the Act of the local authority is published, the Sheffield Federated Education Association will examine it and give publicity to its proposals among the affiliated associations. It will be compared with the ideals of the Association, and in so far as it has aimed to carry out these ideals it will be welcomed. If it should fail to make any provisions which the Association thinks are desirable, the necessary efforts will be made to secure the inclusion of such provisions.

In short, it is felt that the Sheffield Federated Education Association has proved a powerful instrument for assisting to secure the best possible system of education for the city which has provided the nation with its war-time Minister of Education.

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